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ABSTRACT

This guide presents a framework and offers alternatives for developing a logical and consistent K-12 social studies scope and sequence. Although written for use by Connecticut educators, the guide can be used by educators in any state. There are nine sections to the guide. Section one contains a definition of social studies. Section two deals with the curriculum development process and includes a discussion of needs identification, school and community relationships, implementation, and evaluation. Rationale and goals are discussed in the third section. Section four deals with the content of the social studies. Discussed are the social science disciplines, skills, and values. Patterns and construction of scope and sequence are the topics of section five. Section six examines many different types of instructional techniques, including lecture, directed discussion, case studies, games and simulations, and independent study. How to select instructional materials is dealt with in section seven. Evaluation and implementation of the guide are the topics of section eight and nine respectively. Included in the appendices are many useful materials including the names and addresses of professional organizations that can provide assistance to social studies curriculum developers, policy statements concerning teaching about controversial issues, sample history objectives, and affective teaching models. (RM)

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A GUIDE TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN SOCIAL STUDIES

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Arthur E. Soderlind
Consultant in Social Studies

Foreword

Connecticut has a strong commitment to equity and excellence in public education. The *Comprehensive Plan for Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980–1985*, embodies that commitment. Now this guide to curriculum development, part of a series, is one of the ways in which the State Board of Education is carrying out that commitment.

This concern for equal educational opportunity, dominant in the 1970s and continuing into the 1980s, has been expressed in a number of notable actions:

The State Supreme Court's historic school finance reform decision (*Horton v. Meskill*, 1978) led to Connecticut's educational equity legislation.

Statutes growing out of this concern for educational equity are Sections 10-262c, 10-262e and 10-16b of the Connecticut General Statutes. Sections 10-262c and 10-262e alter public school funding practices, more than doubling state support over a five-year period and setting a required minimum expenditure per pupil in each school district. Section 10-16b specifies educational programs which must be offered in all districts, with the requirement that they be "planned, ongoing and systematic."

In Connecticut's *Comprehensive Plan for Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980–1985*, submitted to the General Assembly in 1980, the State Board of Education pledged to offer local school districts a greater level of technical assistance and more positive leadership in planning, implementing and evaluating school programs.

The guides have been developed to provide tangible assistance and support to local school districts in complying with the legislative mandate. The titles of the guides correspond to the subjects which Section 10-16b requires all school districts to offer their students: the arts; career education; consumer education; health and safety; language arts, including reading, writing, grammar, speaking and spelling; mathematics; physical education; science; social studies, including, but not limited to, citizenship, economics, geography, government and history; and, at least on the secondary level, one or more foreign languages, and vocational education. The goals and objectives set forth in each of the guides relate to the

statewide goals endorsed in the *Comprehensive Plan*, namely, motivation to learn, mastery of the basic skills, acquisition of knowledge, competence in life skills and understanding of society's values.

The social studies represents one of the most fundamental areas of human knowledge. As a content area it integrates human experience and knowledge for the purpose of citizenship education. In order to encourage Connecticut's students to learn to become effective citizens in a rapidly changing, pluralistic culture in a world of interdependent nations and people, the study and discussion of controversial issues is a basic right and responsibility of every school system.

The State Board of Education curriculum guides are not mandated courses of study for any student or any grade level. Each is intended solely to assist local district educators in the development of curricula. Each guide reflects the thinking and experience of an array of experts in this subject area who become, through this document, an important resource to local district educators.

The Connecticut State Board of Education frequently has expressed its conviction that the diversity of the state's public school system is one of its great strengths. Students, schools and communities do not have identical educational needs; imposing a standardized curriculum would impair, not improve, learning opportunities for students.

It is important for local district educators to keep the position of the Board in mind as they use this guide. There is much of value here which can be used to strengthen instructional practices and promote excellence in the curriculum development process. But these ideas can only enhance, not replace, the creativity, talent and commitment of the people in our local school districts who use this guide.

Mark R. Shedd
Commissioner of Education

Preface

A Guide to Curriculum Development in Social Studies is designed for educators and others who share a common concern for the development of quality educational programs. The guide's function is to assist communities in providing each child an equal opportunity for a planned, ongoing and systematic program of social studies' experiences.

The guide presents a framework and offers alternatives for developing a logical and consistent scope and sequence. It is hoped that this guide will assist local boards of education, curriculum committees and teachers in making curricular decisions which consider these factors:

- statutory requirements
- recommendations of the State Board of Education
- concerns of professional associations
- objectives identified by the Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress (CAEP)
- topics of local concern

The content of *A Guide to Curriculum Development in Social Studies* represents a beginning rather than an ending to the thorny process of curriculum development. By itself, it does not guarantee a quality education in the social studies for Connecticut students. Nor does it guarantee that the statewide educational goals of the State Board of Education will be translated into instructional realities. Such ends will be achieved only if the guide becomes the means for establishing a sense of direction and identity in local programs. In this quest for rationality, local curriculum developers must probe and reach consensus on such items as:

- What knowledge should students acquire in order to become effective citizens?
- What skills and abilities do students need in order to process the knowledge most effectively?

- What attitudes and values should students possess in order to become effective citizens in a democratic society?
- What forms of social participation should students experience in order to become effectively involved in community life and activities, now and in the future?
- How can the effectiveness of any social studies program be measured in terms of the present and the future needs of the individual and of society?

Answers to these questions have varied over the years. *A Guide to Curriculum Development in Social Studies* is designed to help social studies curriculum committees reach agreement on the answers to the questions.

Definition of the Social Studies 1

For more than 50 years social studies education has been in a constant state of flux. Today, against a background of controversy and debate, a working definition can be offered:

> The social studies integrates human experience and knowledge for the purpose of citizenship education. Citizenship education implies membership in the American and the human community and the commitment to work effectively with diverse peoples and to accept differences in cultures, in values, and in responses to societal issues.

Traditionally the social studies draws its content from the disciplines of anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, psychology, philosophy, religion and sociology. Because the social studies deals with the interrelationships and interactions of individuals in all aspects of society, past and present, it can provide youth with the knowledge, values and skills necessary for survival in the future.

The social studies learning experiences of the elementary and secondary schools should be selected so as to prepare youth as informed, humane, rational and participating citizens. No attempt should be made to limit the content to which the student is exposed.

The study of values is an integral part of social studies, but values are governed by cultural orientation and time. They vary and they change. Although our society has been shaped primarily by the western tradition, many of its values are being questioned. Thus social studies, more than any other subject in the school curriculum has been the object of public sentiment and controversy.

Typically, a particular version of the social studies has emerged from the current of public opinion, only to be swept away by counter opinion, and then to reemerge at a later date. Recent demands call for a return to the "basics" in order to make the social studies "accountable" and "competency-based."

A historical survey

The changes in social studies during the past 75 years help identify and clarify significant trends in this field. The taproots of the social studies curriculum run deep, to the recommendations of the 1916 National Education Association (NEA) Committee on the Social Studies. With the goal of helping every student to become a "thoroughly efficient" member of the community, the Committee defined the purpose of public education to be "the cultivation of good citizenship." Reflecting the strong hand of John Dewey, the new goal of social reconstruction was wedded to the traditional goal of cultural transmission, and the social studies curriculum was transformed. The demand for "functional" learning began to tear away the fabric of the classical, history-dominated curriculum.

Reflecting the NEA Committee's desire to make the curriculum more practical, usable and relevant to the lives of students, the social studies content focused on youths' experiences. The traditional "four blocks of history" were out, and Problems of Democracy became the primary vehicle for the new emphasis on citizenship education.

Despite the seminal features of the 1916 NEA Report, the response of educators was more in spirit than substance. As a result of the pressures from social reconstructionists and the newly emerging social sciences, the social studies curriculum was transformed over the next two decades. It moved from a history-dominated, mental-discipline approach to a more functional, contemporary-centered approach. Yet, scant attention was paid to the deeper issues of instructional strategies, content selection and course structures. In theory, social studies as citizenship education had come of age. In reality, educators struggled endlessly to translate this theory into instructional practices.

During the 1930s and 1940s, the first systematic attempt to examine social studies objectives appeared in the volumes of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. In 1932, Charles A. Beard in *A Charter for the Social Sciences*[1] stated that the fundamental purpose of the social studies was "the creation of rich, many-sided personalities equipped with practical knowledge and inspired by ideals so that they can make their way and fulfill their mission in a changing society which is part of a world complex."

In 1955 Hunt and Metcalf[2] proposed the method of reflective analysis based on the process of critical thinking as a means of breaking out of the "life adjustment box" that characterized social studies at this point. Arguing that the social studies curriculum should be organized around the "closed areas" of our society (economics, race and minority relations, social class, politics and government, sex and marriage, and sectarian religious beliefs), they proposed a new way of integrating the knowledge and skills of the social sciences with the traditional goal of citizenship education. Before the method of reflective analysis could take hold, the threat of Soviet technology, coupled with the shrill cries of proponents of traditional academic disciplines, once again reshaped the social studies.

Historians and social scientists, stung by the attacks of critics who shared a common distaste for the bland fare of the social studies, joined forces to usher in the "new social studies" of the 1960s. Hunt and Metcalf's reflective analysis

was replaced by a more academically structured program. Operating on the Brunerian thesis that "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development," concepts, generalizations and the rigorous methodology of the social sciences formed the foundation for the "new social studies." Funds from the federal government and a number of private sources supported more than 50 projects which produced a dazzling array of curricular materials. Knowledge of the structure of history and the social sciences became the goal of social studies education. Citizenship education was placed on the back burner as teachers developed fledgling historians and social scientists.

The "new social studies" could not insulate itself from societal concerns. As the unrest of the 1960s swept into the schools and the social studies classrooms, students rebelled against courses that taught them to discover the structures of the various disciplines. No longer could the social studies curriculum ignore personal values and societal concerns; neither could it ignore the developing countries of the Third World. With the cry for relevancy came a push for humanizing education. Into the curriculum poured rap sessions, mini-courses, interdisciplinary studies, values education, moral development and area studies.

By the mid-1970s, however, social studies was being whipsawed by the "back-to-basics" current. First came the news of declining Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores. The unsettling results of the National Assessment of Citizenship Education confirmed a serious erosion in the civic understanding of youth, and then came concerns over the lack of voter participation by young people who had been given the right to vote at age 18. Critics charged that students were failing to acquire the requisite knowledge or to master the analytic skills that would enable them to function as responsible and effective citizens. As the decade of the eighties dawned, citizenship education swung back front and center as the focal point of social studies education.

This new hickory stick, "back-to-basics," presently is being used to shape a curriculum which rests on a foundation of topics and subjects established more than 50 years ago. The knowledge-based curriculum that has evolved is largely interdisciplinary on the elementary level. On the secondary level, social studies is a series of separate offerings dominated by the disciplines of history and political science with some concessions to the other social science disciplines.

There has been growing interest and support for a number of developments to reinforce the present thrust toward education for responsible and effective citizenship. Collectively, these movements provide an inkling into the future direction of the discussion of what constitutes the citizenship component of the social studies:

- alternative educational settings designed to maximize student decision making on the basis of different curricula and different instructional models;
- action-learning programs to get students into real-life learning and service opportunities in the community, and
- transition schools to assist student growth toward maturity, thereby enabling youth to make a more effective transition to adulthood.[3]

These trends, however, may be modified or even negated if the national conservative reaction carries the back-to-basics movement to a full realization. This movement emphasizes the traditionalism of content, the stress on the basic skills, and the cultural inculcation of values which were so much a part of education earlier in the century.

In essence, then, the social studies is an unfinished agenda. Just as social studies has evolved to its present status, it surely will continue to evolve in the future. If change and controversy are inherent features of democracy, they are also inherent features of the social studies. This is not negative, for change and controversy are the cutting edges of progress.

In 1979, the National Council for the Social Studies prepared a statement on the essentials of social studies. This statement appears on pages 4 through 7.

ESSENTIALS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

"If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be."
—Thomas Jefferson

Citizen participation in public life is essential to the health of our democratic system. Effective social studies programs help prepare young people who can identify, understand and work to solve the problems that face our increasingly diverse nation and interdependent world. Organized according to a professionally designed scope and sequence, such programs:

1. Begin in preschool and continue throughout formal education and include a range of related electives at the secondary level.
2. Foster individual and cultural identity.
3. Include observation of and participation in the school and community as part of the curriculum.
4. Deal with critical issues and the world as it really is.
5. Prepare students to make decisions based on American principles.
6. Demand high standards of performance and measure student success by means that require more than the memorization of information.
7. Depend on innovative teachers broadly prepared in history, the humanities, the social sciences, educational theory and practice.
8. Involve community members as resources for program development and student involvement.
9. Lead to citizenship participation in public affairs.

In 1979, the National Council for the Social Studies joined with 11 other professional associations to reaffirm the value of a balanced education.[4] We now enumerate the essentials of exemplary social studies programs. Such programs contribute not only to the development of students' capacity to read and compute, but also link knowledge and skills with an understanding of and commitment to democratic principles and their application.

Knowledge

Students need knowledge of the world at large and the world at hand, the world of individuals and the world of institutions, the world past, the world present and future. An exemplary social studies curriculum links information presented in the classroom with experiences gained by students through social and civic observation, analysis and participation.

Classroom instruction which relates content to information drawn from media and from experience focuses on the following areas of knowledge:

- History and culture of our nation and the world
- Geography—physical, political, cultural and economic
- Government—theories, systems, structures and processes
- Economics—theories, systems, structures and processes
- Social institutions—the individual, the group, the community and the society
- Intergroup and interpersonal relationships
- Worldwide relationships of all sorts between and among nations, races, cultures and institutions

From this knowledge base, exemplary programs teach skills, concepts and generalizations that can help students understand the sweep of human affairs and ways of managing conflict consistent with democratic procedures.

Democratic beliefs

Fundamental beliefs drawn from the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution with its Bill of Rights form the basic principles of our democratic constitutional order. Exemplary school programs do not indoctrinate students to accept these ideas blindly, but present knowledge about their historical derivation and contemporary application essential to understanding our society and its institutions. Not only should such ideas be discussed as they relate to the curriculum and to current affairs, they should also be mirrored by teachers in their classrooms and embodied in the school's daily operations.

These democratic beliefs depend upon such practices as due process, equal protection and civic participation, and are rooted in the concepts of:

- justice
- equality
- responsibility
- freedom
- diversity
- privacy

Thinking skills

It is important that students connect knowledge with beliefs and action. To do that, thinking skills can be developed through constant systematic prac-

tice throughout the years of formal schooling. Fundamental to the goals of social studies education are those skills which help assure rational behavior in social settings.

In addition to strengthening reading and computation, there is a wide variety of thinking skills essential to the social studies which can be grouped into four major categories:

- **Data Gathering Skills.** Learning to:
  Acquire information by observation
  Locate information from a variety of sources
  Compile, organize, and evaluate information
  Extract and interpret information
  Communicate orally and in writing
- **Intellectual Skills.** Learning to:
  Compare things, ideas, events, and situations on the basis of similarities and differences
  Classify or group items in categories
  Ask appropriate and searching questions
  Draw conclusions or inferences from evidence
  Arrive at general ideas
  Make sensible predictions from generalizations
- **Decision-Making Skills.** Learning to:
  Consider alternative solutions
  Consider the consequences of each solution
  Make decisions and justify them in relationship to democratic principles.
  Act, based on those decisions
- **Interpersonal Skills.** Learning to:
  See things from the point of view of others
  Understand one's own beliefs, feelings, abilities, and shortcomings and how they affect relations with others
  Use group generalizations without stereotyping and arbitrarily classifying individuals
  Recognize value in individuals different from one's self and groups different from one's own
  Work effectively with others as a group member
  Give and receive constructive criticism;
  Accept responsibility and respect the rights and property of others

Participation skills

As a civic participant, the individual uses the knowledge, beliefs, and skills learned in the school, the social studies classroom, the community, and the family as the basis for action.

Connecting the classroom with the community provides many opportunities for students to learn the basic skills of participation, from observation to advocacy. To teach participation, social studies programs need to emphasize the following kinds of skills:

Work effectively in groups—organizing, planning, making decisions, taking action
Form coalitions of interest with other groups
Persuade, compromise, bargain
Practice patience and perseverance in working for one's goal
Develop experience in cross-cultural situations

Civic action

Social studies programs which combine the acquisition of knowledge and skills with an understanding of the application of democratic beliefs to life through practice at social participation represent an ideal professional standard. Working to achieve that ideal is vital to the future of our society. However, even if excellent programs of social studies education were in place, there would often remain a missing element—the will to take part in public affairs. Formal education led by creative and humane teachers can provide the knowledge, the tools, the commitment for a thoughtful consideration of issues and can even stimulate the desire to be active. But to achieve full participation, our diverse society must value and model involvement to emphasize for young people the merit of taking part in public life.

As we approach the bicentennial of our Constitution and Bill of Rights, is it not time for us to recommit ourselves as a nation to strong education for civic responsibility?

From National Council for the Social Studies

Questions to be answered

Admittedly the task confronting social studies developers is not easy. There are no elixers to be used. Attempts to articulate the theoretical underpinnings of the field invariably raise a host of questions about the purposes and the goals of the social studies. These questions have been raised at each stage of the evolutionary development and must be raised again and again. Among these are:

- Should the major disciplines that constitute the social studies be considered as separate and distinct disciplines?
- Should the disciplines be integrated into a unified structure?
- Should cultural values be transmitted and inculcated?
- Should cultural values be examined reflectively and evaluated critically?
- Should the major emphasis of social studies instruction be on developing functionally effective citizens?
- Should the major emphasis be on developing a broadly educated person?

These questions, along with many others, must be raised and resolved on a continuing basis. Until this is done, social studies can be nothing more than a mental exercise, unrelated to the problems which young people face today and devoid of practice in those skills which they will need tomorrow.

2 The Curriculum Development Process

The process of curriculum development is more than the simple adoption of a textbook. Each district, based on its own needs and resources, must establish a process for the development of its social studies curriculum. This chapter explores some important aspects of developing social studies curriculum. Although a sequence is suggested, the process can be entered at any point.[5]

Developing appropriate social studies curricula is essential as schools face the challenges of the remainder of this century. Social studies courses are particularly important in developing students who can face the future with the necessary knowledge, skills and values in order to participate in their everchanging world. In the social studies curriculum development process, a district will:

- clarify goals for students;
- outline a basic instructional framework to guide teachers;
- identify key concepts, generalizations, content, skills, and values at each grade level;
- establish a sequence of social studies instruction;
- identify instructional activities that meet the needs of learners of differing abilities and interests;
- develop evaluation measures which demonstrate how well students are meeting the curricular goals and objectives, and
- provide a process of regular evaluation and revision of the curriculum as times, materials and students change.

A well-defined social studies curriculum for any school district should have positive instructional outcomes. As a result, students should:

- participate in a variety of learning experiences that explore their roles as citizens of the community, the nation and the world;
- choose activities which are important to their interests and needs;
- know how well they are performing in relationship to curricular goals and objectives;
- develop a knowledge base of key concepts, generalizations and content from the social studies;

- develop an understanding of basic American values and how they are reflected in this society;
- develop skills for living in a multicultural society;
- become well-informed about the issues and problems that face the local community, the nation and the world, and
- be prepared to participate actively in the democratic process.

This chapter considers factors that are particularly important to the social studies curriculum development process.[6] Sections focus on important factors for consideration, essential resources, local and outside influences, interrelationships, needs identification, possible designs, implementation and evaluation. A concluding section examines development of local curriculum guides.

Factors for consideration

Social studies curriculum developers do not operate in a vacuum. They must consider several important factors, including their own experiences, educational philosophies and preferred strategies. To avoid implementing only the biases of committee members, the committee should follow the school district's overall philosophy and goals.

A second important factor is community pressure. Interest groups often want their ideas included in the curriculum. While community needs and values should be considered and curriculum localized to take advantage of what the community has to offer, these influences should not be the only deciding factor.

A third factor is the contemporary social climate. During the eighties, the United States faces new challenges. Students need to learn how to be productive in an increasingly mechanized society and how to integrate themselves into a society with a plurality of cultures, values and lifestyles. Social studies curricula increasingly explore controversial issues, thus helping students to examine critically their own social realities.

A fourth important factor is the interrelationships among subject areas mandated by the state of Connecticut. As students explore their world in social studies classes, they learn about the interaction of people in the working world. Cross-fertilization with career education is a must. Consumer education is also a related area. For example, the implications of what is learned in economics for the development of intelligent consumers cannot be overlooked. Similarly, social studies materials draw on the arts and the sciences. The curriculum also provides opportunities for students to practice basic skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking and even in mathematics. Students can benefit also from foreign language experiences as they strive to become citizens in a multicultural world.

A fifth important factor is the district's expertise in social studies and curriculum development. If there is insufficient assistance available locally, then other resources must be sought. For example, if a small district chooses to include some anthropology in its curriculum, it may not have staff personnel with this expertise. There are available, however, other state districts teaching anthropol-

ogy, a state department consultant, college personnel, and national curriculum projects that can serve as resources.

Finally, the most important factor is the district's students. Their varied backgrounds should be reflected in the social studies curriculum. The development process also will be influenced by student abilities and needs. For example, there must be provision for all students with special needs. There also must be consideration of students' reading and skills levels. The curriculum must reflect the totality of the school rather than be designed for the average students alone.

Resources for development

The curriculum development process is influenced by available community resources: human, financial, time and material. These are described in detail in the general guide for curriculum development.

Available human resources include the whole community. Parents and members of community groups should be encouraged to become involved, particularly when the committee is considering a program's rationale and goals, because these representatives can reflect community attitudes. Students can often detect ideas which are inappropriate or unworkable. Perhaps their reasons may seem strange to professional educators, but their evaluations can save the expenditure of scarce funds for unsuitable materials. Even primary students may participate in evaluating materials or activities, either by trying them in their classrooms or by attending a review meeting. Other individuals, both from the professional staff and the community, can make a contribution. For example, if a curriculum unit focusing on contemporary American minority cultures is being developed, community members can serve as consultants. Business leaders can help develop an economics unit. Local attorneys or law enforcement professionals may aid in writing law-related units.

Other resources are available. The Joint Council on Economic Education and the American Bar Association offer curriculum assistance. The state Department of Education has a social studies consultant. The regional service centers (see Appendix C) serve specific state areas, having both personnel and other resources. Sometimes, an outside social studies consultant may be employed briefly, particularly if a K–12 revision is planned and there is no professional staff person charged with curriculum responsibility.

Financial resources are important. Assistance may be provided by local service organizations such as the League of Women Voters, the Rotary Club, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the Women's Club and others. Local businesses and industries may help with special projects. (For further information, see *A Guide to Curriculum Development: Purposes, Practices and Procedures.*)

Finally the committee must consider what materials are available. The district's professional and curriculum libraries can be searched. The regional service centers and the college curriculum libraries can serve as sources. The publications of the National Council for the Social Studies, the Association

for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Joint Council on Economic Education and the Social Science Education Consortium may be used (see Appendix D).

Influences on development

Internal and external factors influence the social studies curriculum development process. It is impossible for the committee to ignore such matters as the community's expectations, local school board policies or the relationships among curricular areas. The committee must be especially sensitive to community values because social studies' subject matter frequently incorporates controversial topics. The committee should look at its school board's philosophy and goals statements, its policies on academic freedom, on controversial issues, on field trips and on community involvement. If these do not exist, the social studies developers should ask the board to consider their preparation. The committee also should discuss with the professional staff how curricula interact. Social studies teachers have a responsibility to make relationships among subject matter explicit enough so that students can draw their school studies together into a unified whole.

The Connecticut General Assembly has been quite specific about including social studies in the mandated curriculum. The General Statutes state: "In the public school the program of instruction offered shall include at least the following subject matter . . . social studies, including, but not limited to, citizenship, economics, geography, government, and history . . . " (**G.S. 10-16b**). Every district committee, therefore, must be sure that its students are taught social studies through their school years, that the listed areas are included and that other social studies areas are provided when needed or desired. A program of United States history also is required (**G.S. 10-18**). Committees must decide how to structure their curricula to meet these mandates.

The recommendations of the National Council for the Social Studies are another factor influencing the development process. This professional organization seeks the advice of many people throughout the nation in developing its guidelines. They can be used to insure proper curricular balance (see Chapter 3).

A third consideration is the results both from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and the Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress (CAEP). The results of these assessments in the areas of citizenship and social studies indicate a need for improved instruction. Every district has a copy of the state report. It includes both the social studies goals from which the test was developed and the committee's recommendations for improvement (see Chapter 3).

A final factor is the State Board of Education's policy statements. For a statement on controversial issues that relate to social studies see Appendix E. Such statements can help in making curricular decisions and provide support when local community members object to social studies content.

School and community relationships

Curriculum development success often depends on how well the committee maintains its relationships with other members of the school and the local community. The committee must recognize that it cannot act in isolation but that it must share its ideas with others. If the relationships between professionals and the community are maintained throughout this process, then implementation of the curriculum is both easier and more likely to succeed. Social studies, because of its inherent concern with controversial issues, often becomes a source of community controversy but adequate communication during curriculum development can eliminate much of the controversy before it begins.

Needs identification

It is vital for social studies curriculum developers to identify the special needs of the local community and its schools and to develop a curriculum that meets these needs. Needs assessment is a multifaceted process. It should:

- examine both present and future student needs;
- explore teachers' perceptions of necessary change;
- invite community members to express their views of what a district's social studies program should include, and
- solicit various interest groups for their ideas.

An adequate social studies needs assessment accomplishes two very important purposes. First, it alerts school personnel and the community that curriculum change is being considered. Second, it guides the construction of a curriculum that will best meet the needs of all concerned groups.

The general guide to curriculum development has more information about how to conduct needs assessments including sample questions. Careful construction of questions will elicit social studies curriculum goals, appropriate instructional techniques, and needed changes.

Possible designs

A social studies curriculum can be designed in many different ways. General curriculum designs can be found in the guide to the curriculum development process. The social studies committee must decide which model is most satisfactory for its purposes and modify the model to meet its needs. Rarely, the committee will design an entirely new approach.

Implementation

Implementation of the new curriculum is the crux of the process. It requires careful committee planning. For example, a new anthropology and sociology curriculum would require the committee to plan staff development experiences that increase the teacher's knowledge of these subject areas. If new conceptual teaching strategies are required, then teachers must be trained to use them with all types of

children. Proper implementation means provision for not only staff development programs but also sufficient support services.

As full implementation of a new curriculum occurs, changes will be made. The committee must plan for disseminating information about these revisions. Implementation is an ongoing process. As new teachers enter the district, they must become aware of how the social studies curriculum functions.

Committees must plan carefully so that no teacher is burdened with too many new curricula. In a small secondary school, for example, no individual should have to plan new courses at three grade levels in a single year. Good implementation schedules allow teachers to teach one new course at a time.

Evaluation

Evaluation in the curriculum development process has a two-fold purpose. First, it provides continuous feedback about curriculum effectiveness. Second, evaluation assesses student performance in relationship to curricular goals and objectives. The committee must plan for both types of evaluation.

Many schools begin the curriculum development process as a result of evaluation. A teacher or department may decide too many students are failing United States history. A new curriculum may be developed, one that is more in tune with students' needs and interests. This new curriculum might have a broader base or might be reorganized to achieve more depth of understanding.

Evaluation also is the end of this process. As implementation occurs, the effectiveness of new programs must be evaluated. Chapter 8 explores some ways to accomplish this. Teachers will evaluate how both they and their students respond to the new program.

Finally, curriculum developers must provide ways for teachers and students to assess achievement. The committee should construct instruments for both short-term and long-term feedback. Chapter 8 explores some methods that can be used for average and gifted students as well as for those with learning handicaps.

Resource use

Materials that can be used to teach social studies include textbooks, audiovisual materials, magazines, television programs, free materials or computer games. Advertising tear sheets or contemporary art—in short, almost any material, print or nonprint, can provide useful information to students.

Social studies materials, because of their diversity, are bound to be controversial. Community members may object to materials supplied by the dairy industry or the nuclear power company. Yet, these materials provide a golden opportunity for social studies teachers to address the problems of bias, of propaganda, and of diverse viewpoints.

Taking students on field trips and inviting guest speakers to meet with the class are also productive ways to capitalize on resources outside the school. Social studies resources can be provided by unions or manufacturers, historical societies or special interest groups. They can be from state sources such as development commissions or from national sources such as embassies. All can be useful in developing and implementing a broadly based social studies curriculum.

Development of local guides

The preparation of a local social studies guide involves all elements of curriculum development. A cohesive program for grades K–12 should be developed in each district. The district curriculum guide will outline the overall program at all grade levels. Each course, whether it is kindergarten or senior contemporary history, should have a course outline. The course outline is much more specific, serving as a guide for a classroom teacher in implementing the overall curriculum at a particular grade level.

Local guides may be developed in many ways. Not every district may use every step. Most districts will be in some phase of development every year:

examining needs
evaluating program effectiveness
writing new programs
choosing new materials
implementing new ideas

A consistent district process, however, will insure development of a comprehensive program, one incorporating all essential elements and producing graduates who meet local goals.

Every committee must develop a work schedule. It will depend on the point at which the district has entered the curriculum development process and on district constraints. The listing below appears linear, but it can be entered at almost any point as this is a continuous process.

- Examine existing curriculum for strengths and weaknesses.
- Assess needs of students, teachers and community.
- Develop social studies curriculum goals.
- Identify concepts, generalizations and objectives.
- Select content and develop activities.
- Choose materials to implement goals and objectives.
- Pilot test materials and evaluate results.
- Rewrite curriculum guide in final form.
- Present guide to Board of Education and others.
- Instruct teachers in use of new guide and materials.
- Evaluate implementation of new curriculum.
- Revise based on evaluation results.

There is a dichotomy between the development of elementary and secondary social studies curricula for two basic reasons: the nature of each level's instructional process and the nature of the available instructional materials.

The average elementary social studies curriculum has strong ties to the selected materials. A basic textbook series usually is chosen for several grade levels. This series becomes a primary source for scope and sequence, for objectives and concepts, for content and evaluation. Supplementary materials are added, primarily audiovisual or multilevel to meet individual differences. Teacher-created materials may be used to teach local and state social studies. Sometimes a multi-text approach is used, but this requires great care because each series has different skills sequences and develops different concepts. For the most part, elementary teachers are not social studies specialists. They are concerned primarily with the basics of reading, language arts and mathematics. They rely on social studies materials to provide guidance, particularly in smaller districts. Larger communities may have social studies specialists as early as grade 4.

The average secondary curriculum, on the other hand, is much more likely to be developed as a series of individual courses. Each course has written goals and objectives, selected concepts and content, before materials are chosen. A wide variety of secondary materials is available on most topics. The teachers are social studies specialists. In a small school district, an individual teacher responsible for a course may design its course outline. In a larger school district, several teachers may work together on a single course. A variety of formats for course outlines may be selected according to perceived needs.

The local curriculum guide outlines the overall program for the district. Individual course outlines are developed for each instructional level. A social studies committee should select a process for development before it begins its tasks.

Rationale and Goals 3

The social studies deals with all human behavior. The entire scope of history, the insights of the social sciences and the humanities, and the full range of social experience constitute the knowledge bases from which a social studies curriculum must be molded. Consequently, a rationale for curricular decisions is essential to give focus and coherence to the program.

There are other compelling reasons for a committee to take the time and make the effort to construct a program rationale. Some reasons that are especially significant in the eighties are:

- declining educational funding at local, state and national levels creates a struggle for these limited funds;
- a "back-to-basics" point of view perceives social studies within very narrow limits;
- schools, and social studies programs in particular, become battle-grounds on which community groups clash over fundamental value issues, and
- ill-defined social studies programs are easy targets for special interest groups seeking to use the schools to promote their particular cause or viewpoint.

Programs without well-reasoned and articulated rationales will find it increasingly difficult to garner community support.

Many of these issues are themselves the topics which should be the basis of social studies. **Discussing controversial issues and studying differing viewpoints are central to social studies**. These aspects often must be defended by curriculum designers. In short, an explicit statement of rationale and a set of broad goals are an absolute necessity that logic, the tenor of the times, and the very knowledge base of social studies demands.

Function of a rationale

A rationale has one major function, to provide answers to two fundamental questions:

- Why are we teaching this?
- What do we really want our students to accomplish?

These two questions need to be addressed in constructing a social studies curriculum to prepare youth as participating citizens both in a democratic society and in an interdependent and rapidly changing world.

Curriculum committees must face squarely a host of interrelated issues dealing with the role of the citizen as a decision maker and contributor to the resolution of controversial issues. Broadly construed, these issues can be grouped into four general categories:

- What should the effective citizen know?
- What skills should the effective citizen have?
- What values need the effective citizen hold?
- How should the effective citizen participate in community life?

The operative words in these questions are **knowledge**, **skills**, **values** and **participation**. Each of these words can serve social studies curriculum planners as a focus for organizing their program. It is important to recognize that these

questions are open-ended. Honest and well-intentioned people will have legitimately different ways of answering them. This should not serve as a deterrent to seeking answers, but merely as a reminder that the construction of a social studies curriculum is always an unfinished agenda.

Given this framework, the curriculum committee can begin to wrestle with such issues as: the role of history and the various social science disciplines; the interdisciplinary aspects of the humanities, the sciences and the arts; the use of controversial issues; the degree of student participation. The answers then become the rationale for curricular decisions.

Finally, social studies curriculum committees need to view their programs as part of an overall school curriculum and educational experience, taking place in a school environment with norms, rules and a culture of its own that also contributes significantly to citizenship education.

Selection of broad goals

Before developing program goals for a K–12 curriculum or specific course goals, curriculum committees must define the social studies. In its bulletin, *Defining the Social Studies*, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) offers this definition: "The social studies is an integration of experience and knowledge concerning human relations for the purpose of citizenship education."[7] The authors note that the central goal of citizenship education requires meeting the following objectives: knowledge, skills necessary to process information, values and beliefs, and social participation. These suggest one way to organize program goals.

The NCSS Curriculum Guidelines (1979) provide a set of standards which can be used by curriculum developers to measure their own programs and to suggest the kinds of competencies they should seek to develop. The major guidelines, each of which has subheadings that describe it more fully, are:

- The social studies program should be directly related to the age, maturity, and concerns of students.
- The social studies program should deal with the real social world.
- The social studies program should draw from currently valid knowledge representative of human experience, culture, and beliefs.
- Objectives should be thoughtfully selected and clearly stated in such form as to furnish direction to the program.
- Learning activities should engage the student directly and actively in the learning process.
- Strategies of instruction and learning activities should rely on a broad range of learning resources.
- The social studies program must facilitate the organization of experience.
- Evaluation should be useful, systematic, comprehensive, and valid for the objectives of the programs.
- Social studies education should receive vigorous support as a vital and responsible part of the school program.

The NCSS Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education (1976) are a good reference for social studies curriculum writers. Some of the most useful specific guidelines are:

- Ethnic pluralism should permeate the total school environment.
- School policies and procedures should foster positive multiethnic interactions and understandings among students, teachers, and the support staff.
- The curriculum should reflect the ethnic learning styles of the students within the school community.
- The multiethnic curriculum should provide students with continuous opportunities to develop a better sense of self.
- The curriculum should help students to understand the totality of the experiences of American ethnic groups.
- The multiethnic curriculum should help students understand that there is always a conflict between ideals and realities in human societies.
- The multiethnic curriculum should explore and clarify ethnic alternatives and options within American society.
- The multethnic curriculum should promote values, attitudes, and behaviors which support ethnic pluralism.
- The multiethnic curriculum should help students develop their decision-making abilities, social participation skills, and sense of political efficacy as necessary bases for effective citizenship in an ethnically pluralistic nation.
- The multiethnic curriculum should help students develop the skills necessary for effective interpersonal and interethnic group interactions.
- The multiethnic curriculum should be comprehensive in scope and sequence, should present holistic views of ethnic groups, and should be an integral part of the total school curriculum.
- The multiethnic curriculum should include the continuous study of the cultures, historical experiences, social realities, and existential conditions of ethnic groups, including a variety of racial compositions.
- Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches should be used in designing and implementing the multiethnic curriculum.
- The curriculum should use comparative approaches in the study of ethnic groups and ethnicity.
- The curriculum should help students to view and interpret events, situations, and conflict from diverse ethnic perspectives and points of view.
- The curriculum should conceptualize and describe the development of the United States as a multidirectional society.
- The curriculum should make maximum use of local community resources.

The Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress in Citizenship and Social Studies (1978) established the following goals:

- Have knowledge of local, state and United States history.
- Have knowledge about the historical development and contributions of past and present civilizations.
- Know the main structure, function, and processes of all levels of United States government.
- Have knowledge about the ideology and practices of different political systems.
- Understand the nature of conflict among individuals, groups, and nations

and evaluate alternative methods of resolving conflict.
- Recognize rights and liberties essential to a pluralistic society and how they are guaranteed.
- Understand the duties and responsibilities of United States citizenship.
- Understand that political opposition and special interest groups have a legitimate and important role in democratic society.
- Have knowledge about economic systems and economic behavior.
- Have knowledge about the relationships between human beings and their physical environment and understand some of the consequences of their relationships.
- Have knowledge about social organization and relationships between humans and their social environment and understand some of the consequences of these relationships.
- Have knowledge about "cultural universals" such as needs for shelter, communication, family organization, and religion and recognize that needs are satisfied in different ways in various cultures.
- Recognize that culture defines beliefs, values, and institutions, and influences behavior.
- Demonstrate skill in locating, compiling and weighing the evidence and data necessary for clarifying issues and making decisions.

These can be used as a district's broad social studies goals.

Another source is the *K–12 Course Goals in Social Science* developed by the Tri-County Goal Development Project of Clackamas, Multnomah and Washington Counties in Oregon. This extensive work lists broad goals such as:

- the student knows scientifically validated facts contributing to modern understanding of humans and human situations;
- the student knows substantive concepts, principles, and theories that provide a variety of contexts for interpreting information about human life, affairs, and situations;
- the student is able to recognize and clarify value conflicts or communication problems complicating choices, decisions or relationships;
- the student is able to participate actively and responsibly in collective decisions affecting the social, economic, political or physical environments in which he or she lives, and
- the student values the creativity and diversity of human cultures, arts and ideas.

The curriculum committee can draw from these and other sources to develop its statement of broad goals. They should reflect community needs and values as well as national goals statements.

Controversial Issues

The study and discussion of controversial issues is a fundamental right of every student in a democratic society. The required skills for critical thinking are perhaps the most important skills to be learned by today's youth.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) over the years has taken numerous stands on this subject. In the early fifties NCSS issued the statement, *Freedom to Learn and Freedom to Teach* (see Appendix F) which says:

> Democracy is a way of life that prizes alternatives. Alternatives mean that people must make choices. Wisdom with which to make choices can come only if there are freedoms of speech, of press, of assembly, and of teaching. They protect the people in their right to hear, to read, to discuss, and to reach judgments according to individual conscience. Without the possession and the exercise of these rights, self-government is impossible.

The statement then elaborates on the rights and freedoms which students must have in order to learn and the corresponding rights and freedoms which teachers must have in order to help their students in the learning process.

The 45th Yearbook of the NCSS in 1975 was entitled *Controversial Issues in the Social Studies: A Contemporary Perspective*. The following material is adapted from this yearbook.

Seven criteria in the selection of controversial issues for social studies classes should be considered.

- Is this issue beyond the maturity and experience level of the students?
- Is this issue of interest to the students?
- Is this issue socially significant and timely for this course and grade level?
- Is this issue one which the teacher can handle successfully from a personal standpoint?
- Is this issue one for which adequate study materials can be obtained?
- Is this issue one for which there is adequate time to justify its presentation?
- Is this issue one which will clash with community customs and attitudes?

After considering the appropriateness of a controversial issue for their classes, teachers must be willing to think and act on these questions:

- Can the teachers engage in a self-reflective process?
- Are the teachers willing to have their own values open to testing?
- Are teachers willing to allow students to have input into the selection of classroom content?
- Are teachers willing to spend the time necessary to prepare and plan carefully?
- Are teachers willing to go beyond their own classroom to open doors to other segments of the community?
- Are teachers willing to learn new techniques of classroom procedures and not see their role as one of giving the right answers?
- Have teachers established an emotional climate in the classroom where students and teacher can openly discuss serious societal conflicts?

In 1978 the State Board of Education issued a policy statement on "Teaching About Controversial Issues" (see Appendix E) in which they recommended that "all Connecticut Boards of Education develop and disseminate a written policy which supports the concept of 'Teaching About Controversial Issues.' " It is essential that all social studies curriculum committees check their local board

policies for such a statement and, if none exists, work toward the establishment of such a written policy.

In April, 1979, the Connecticut Association of Secondary Schools also issued a statement, "Guidelines for Book Selection and Teaching Controversial Issues." Copies of this statement were sent to all secondary principals. A major responsibility of building principals, department heads and curriculum coordinators is to insure that these criteria and local board policies are implemented.

Summary

Development of a sound rationale, preparation of a set of broad goals, and adherence to the policies on controversial issues will do much to forestall negative community reaction to the social studies program. Once these bases have been established, the social studies curriculum committee can develop the heart of the curriculum, the establishment of its content—the specific knowledge, skills, values and participation experiences that will make up the curriculum.

Content of the Social Studies 4

Once a rationale has been written and broad goals have been established, more specific objectives must be developed in each of the four major areas: **knowledge, skills, values** and **participation.** Content samples must be selected to meet each of these objectives. The content samples may be dictated by available materials, community resources or by teachers' experiences. The content must reflect the many disciplines that are sources of the social studies. The resulting curriculum must illuminate the broad vista that is social studies rather than concentrate on a single discipline or a few cultural areas.

THE KNOWLEDGE OR COGNITIVE COMPONENT

The base of the social studies is knowledge or content. Each generation determines its own fundamentals, but all have commonalities. Tanck has defined knowledge as a pyramid (see Figure 1). Learning is sequential; therefore, concepts cannot be learned without knowing facts or attributes. Making generaliza-

tions is not possible without familiarity with concepts. A construct for a discipline cannot be developed without understanding generalizations.

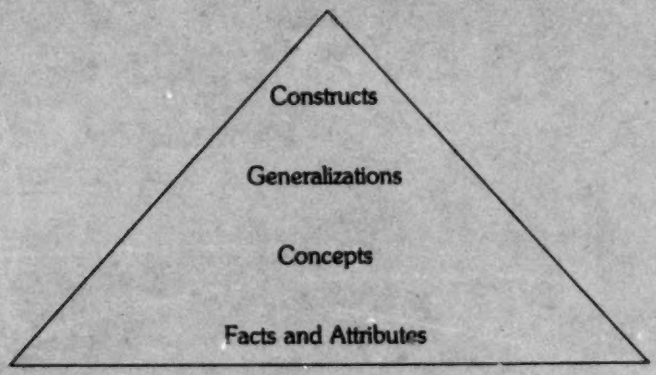

Figure 1
Tanck's Model of Knowledge[8]

Today knowledge is increasing so rapidly that no one can keep pace. Information becomes obsolete as new discoveries occur. Therefore, more stress is placed on learning social studies concepts and generalizations that have a universality for lifetime learning. Curriculum developers, however, must be cautious not to overload any single grade level or course with too many concepts. It is not possible to teach 50 or 60 new concepts in a single year. Ten to 15 are ample. Concepts often recur throughout the curriculum. As students' knowledge expands, so does their comprehension of concepts.

The classification of cognitive educational goals was done in the 1950s, and a hierarchy of the cognitive domain was established. The social studies curriculum committee should consider including content from all levels of the taxonomy in what is developed. The major levels are:

- knowledge (remembering ideas, material or phenomena)
- comprehension (understanding the literal message in a communication through translation, interpretation or extrapolation)
- application (uses comprehension of knowledge to demonstrate use or to solve problem)
- analysis (breaking down material into its component parts, determining relationships among them, and organizing the material accordingly)
- synthesis (putting together the elements and parts so as to form a whole)
- evaluation (making judgments about the value of ideas, works, solutions, methods, materials, etc. by using criteria)[9]

Knowledge for the social studies curriculum can be drawn from many sources. The social sciences furnish the basic content. Other sources provide objectives and theoretical bases for organizing the content into instructional units.

The social science disciplines

Connecticut law requires all schools to offer a minimum of social studies instruction in economics, geography, history and political science. Economic education encompasses economic theory and the roles of management and organized labor in the economy. In line with recommendations of a group of education, labor, business and industrial representatives (Career Education Task Force, 1978), local education agencies are urged to include in the curriculum information on the historical aspects of the American labor movement. Students should have an opportunity to examine in a classroom setting the roots of the American worker and his/her roles as a citizen and worker in an industrial democracy, in which American workers have the right to act collectively in their own behalf.

Other key concepts and generalizations from a broad range of disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, psychology, philosophy and religion, have been identified and classified according to the grade levels at which instruction seems most appropriate. (For examples, see Table 1, page 24.) A complete listing of key concepts and generalizations, as well as descriptive material about the disciplines, is available upon request from the social studies consultant in the State Department of Education. The Department also is preparing for distribution materials on the role of the private sector and the contributions of organized labor in the economy.

Specific knowledge objectives

The committee must specify knowledge objectives in the overall school district curriculum guide and in the individual course outlines.

The Tri-County Project. The Tri-County Goal Development Project in Oregon[10] has developed more than 500 pages of social studies objectives, classified by discipline and grade level. Some examples are given below.

- The student knows that all people belong to a culture that is unique in its pattern of life within a community or society, regardless of its degree of complexity.
- The student knows that world economic growth was slow and sporadic until the 18th century industrial revolution.
- The student is able to recognize the site factors that determined the location of an urban area being studied.
- The student knows religious, social, economic, political, and sectional differences which existed in colonial American society.
- The student knows potential limitations and benefits of life in a democratic society.
- The student knows that no two people are exactly alike.
- The student knows the ways in which social classes may be characterized, or class distinctions identified/measured.

The treatments in the Tri-County guide are very detailed. An example of one section can be found in Appendix G.

Social roles as a curricular framework. In 1980 Project SPAN of the Social Science Consortium examined the nature of the social studies instruction and

suggested ways to organize the curriculum. One possible framework uses seven social roles.

citizen	member of social groups
consumer	self
family member	worker
friend	

The authors suggest that this approach could make social studies seem more relevant to students and would allow the simultaneous study of the social science disciplines. They reason that social roles would be more immediate for students, therefore stimulating more interest in social studies. Finally, they feel that teachers could easily make the transition to teaching within this framework.

SKILLS OR ABILITIES COMPONENT

Much has been written about social studies skills. Curriculum developers would be well-advised to borrow from the work of others rather than try to develop an original skills sequence. The NCSS 33rd Yearbook presents a unique approach[11] to skills development. The yearbook editors have divided skills into those shared

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Table 1

Selected Concepts and Generalizations in the Social Sciences

Anthropology

Concept	Primary Level	Intermediate Level	Lower Secondary Level	Upper Secondary Level
Language	Humans have the unique ability to communicate in the abstract.	Oral, physical and written communication make up language.	Many language differences are a result of geographical and/or cultural isolation.	All modern languages have equal ability in expressing basic ideas.
	All humans speak a language and can learn the languages of all other humans.	Languages are in a constant state of change.	Many language similarities are a result of trade, migration and conquest.	Language, including written language, becomes a necessity in the evolution of culture.
	A human's ability to communicate is learned.	Communication through language facilitates development of a culture.	Related elements of language may be an indication of common ancestry.	Each language is a self-contained system for categorizing and talking about experience.
		Language originated from a need to express fears and basic needs.	As a result of the growing complexity of societies languages become more complex.	Languages with a common origin are discovered through a systematic comparison of their vocabularies for sound and meaning similarities.

with other fields and those skills which are a major responsibility of the social studies. Skills within each of these categories are shown in the box below.

Social Studies Skills

Major responsibility of the social studies
- reading social studies materials
- applying problem-solving and critical-thinking skills to social issues
- interpreting maps and globes
- understanding time and chronology

Shared responsibility
- locating information
- organizing information
- evaluating information
- acquiring information through reading
- acquiring information through listening and observing
- communicating orally and in writing
- interpreting pictures, charts, graphs, tables
- working with others

Economics

Concept	Primary Level	Intermediate Level	Lower Secondary Level	Upper Secondary Level
Factors of Production	Where people live determines in part what they produce. The climate of an area may limit what people can produce. People use tools, equipment and buildings to make goods. Workers who have skills usually produce more. In complex societies business firms produce most of the goods and services people use.	The quantity and quality of the resources nations possess vary, but all nations have natural resources. Capital goods take many forms, such as factories, tools and machines, all of which are used to increase productivity. Producing goods and services provides income. Every economic system develops financial institutions to carry out the economic activities of the community.	The factors of production must be combined before a product can be produced. The factors of production are used in different proportions in various endeavors. Financial institutions act as intermediaries for financing capital accumulation and for consumption. Banks produce services for individuals and business. If investment increases productivity, a higher scale of living is apt to result.	The organizer of production combines land, labor and capital. Without planned conservation, resources can be wasted or used inefficiently. Wages are payment for labor expended. Corporations facilitate capital formation. The free flow of capital is one essential factor in promoting economic development.

The authors of the NCSS 33rd Yearbook suggest that skills teaching occurs in three phases:

- introducing skills in readiness experiences;
- teaching skills systematically, and
- reteaching, maintaining, and extending skills.

For a copy of "Social Studies Skills: A Guide To Analysis and Grade Placement," NCSS 33rd Yearbook, write to Consultant in Social Studies, Connecticut State Department of Education.

Research has proven that skills are taught best in the context of use rather

Table 1, continued

Geography

Concept	Primary Level	Intermediate Level	Lower Secondary Level	Upper Secondary Level
Spatial Distribution	Geographic location determines in part how people live. Physical environment determines the kind of homes people build. Neighborhoods are composed of people, land and buildings.	A region is an area with common characteristics. Climatic patterns may determine the rate of development of a region. Population density varies from city to farm.	Usability of an area may be affected by spatial distribution. Masses of people tend to inhabit the most desirable place on the land containing the most favorable combination of soil, water and air. World tension can be caused by spatial distribution.	Patterns of human geography are often unstable. Patterns of social phenomena may not conform to patterns of physical phenomena. A change in technology may revolutionize existing cultural or physical patterns.

History

Historical Method	Everything in print is not necessarily true. Magazines, books and newspapers are sources of information. Interpretation of historical events should be based on evidence.	Original sources should be used as reference sources. Historical records are important in studying events in the past. The accomplishments of people are recorded in records, artifacts and printed documents.	Facts may be interpreted in different ways All writers are biased, making facts difficult to separate from fiction. Knowledge of past solutions to problems can aid in solving present problems.	All decisions are speculative. Past records of decisions may reveal alternatives. Complete objectivity in evaluating history is impossible.

than in isolation. A map skills unit taught in September usually results in temporary achievement gains, but an integrated map program functioning within the yearly social studies sequence will result in clearer understanding and greater retention. Curriculum planners should use this research finding in organizing the curriculum.

The NCSS 47th Yearbook specifically examines decision-making skills.[12] It defines the process and suggests various ways in which students can develop needed decision-making skills in questioning, observing, listening, reading, using maps, using graphs and tables, analyzing and synthesizing, applying and predicting, and evaluating and judging. Curriculum writers may find useful suggestions included.

Philosophy and Religion

Concept	Primary Level	Intermediate Level	Lower Secondary Level	Upper Secondary Level
Values	Values are modified as knowledge is gained. Different times and circumstances produce different kinds of values. A sense of fairness is essential in a society.	The dignity and worth of an individual are interpreted differently in each society. The values of others must be recognized and respected even when they do not satisfy personal needs. Ethical and spiritual values govern our behavior.	Societal reforms often are based on religious beliefs. Respect for the rights of others requires an understanding of various religious traditions. Moral development levels govern our reasoning and behavior.	The religions of the world contain many of the same values. Sensitivity to the religious beliefs and values of others prepares one for life in a society characterized by religious pluralism. Justice is the highest virtue in any society.

Political Science

Citizenship	Being a good citizen begins at home and at school; it means helping make the rules and assuming responsibility for one's actions. Creating a political system requires defining mutual rights and duties of both citizen and political system.	Some societies believe that people have no rights apart from the state. Depending on the kind of society they live in, people have differing rights and obligations.	Some individuals in present and past societies have not been accorded rights and liberty. Concepts of rights and liberties have developed through the ages. In the United States, the Bill of Rights specifies individual rights.	There can be no liberty without individual responsibility. Citizen obligation to state and federal government may lead to conflict. Law and judicial systems are designed to resolve conflicts between the individual and the state.

Collections of objectives also can serve as resources for specific skills objectives. The Tri-County Oregon guide provides some examples.

- The student is able to perceive time relationships and sequences.
- The student is able to use a variety of sources to acquire information.
- The student is able to withhold judgments or conclusions until adequate information has been validated.
- The student is able to recognize statements of opinion or belief.
- The student knows the conventional point, line, and area symbols which are used to represent qualitative and quantitative distributions in mapping (e.g., distribution of population or rainfall).

The regional service centers or university libraries (see Appendices C and D) should have other sources. These might include volumes from the Instructional Objectives Exchange, Project SPAN, and the Wisconsin Design.

VALUES OR AFFECTIVE COMPONENT

This is one of the most difficult areas for the curriculum developer. By its very nature, social studies curriculum inescapably includes values issues. Yet, the role of the school in values teaching is quite controversial. Several new ways of teaching values have developed in recent years (see Appendix I).

Table 1, continued

Psychology

Concept	Primary Level	Intermediate Level	Lower Secondary Level	Upper Secondary Level
Uniqueness	Members of a family differ in appearance and abilities. Members of a class differ in appearance and abilities.	An appreciation of individual differences should replace prejudices. Children in every society can and do make important and worthwhile contributions.	Individual differences reveal not only differences but similarities among people. Adolescents may find comfort in having their problems shared by others.	Individual differences are multi-dimensional. Heredity determines some individual differences. Environment determines some individual differences. Emotional responses contribute to cultural and artistic developments.

The affective taxonomy

By the mid-sixties, a taxonomy had been prepared for the affective domain which can be used in developing and classifying educational objectives. The basic levels of the taxonomy are:

- receiving (attending, awareness)
- responding (committing oneself in some measure)
- valuing (accepting a belief, preferring it, committing to it)
- organization (conceptualizing and organizing a value system)
- characterization by a value or value complex (acting in accordance with internalized values and having a consistent philosophy)[13]

The levels of the affective domain should be part of the curriculum, but programs rarely probe the highest level.

Moral development

Lawrence Kohlberg suggests another approach to affective education, moral development. This has three levels. His basic classifications are:

Sociology

Concept	Primary Level	Intermediate Level	Lower Secondary Level	Upper Secondary Level
Culture	Cultures are many and varied.	Much of the culture of any society is dependent upon its geographic location and the availability and abundance of human and natural resources. Social institutions are the structures which provide for the fundamental needs of a society. One cannot judge a culture inferior merely because it differs from one's own culture.	Much of our culture is created through manufactured objects and institutions. There is a high correlation between the degree of education of the mass population and the complexity of the culture.	The acceptance of a custom or belief merely because it is part of the culture, without knowledge of the facts or principles in which it is based or the reasoning by which it can be justified, is a cultural bias. Individuals can see more clearly and appreciate other cultures if they apply the principle of "culture relativity," the realization that any one of several cultural practices may satisfy the needs of a given society.

Preconventional Level

- **Stage 1: The Punishment and Obedience Orientation**
  At this stage, the physical consequences of doing something determine whether it is good or bad, fair or unfair. People at Stage 1 think about avoiding punishment or earning rewards, and they defer to authority figures with power over them or to people with prestige.
- **Stage 2: The Instrumental Relativist Orientation**
  At Stage 2, reasoning leads to action that satisfies one's own needs and sometimes meets the needs of others. Stage 2 thought often involves elements of fairness, but always for pragmatic reasons, rather than from a sense of justice or loyalty. Reciprocity, a key element in Stage 2 thought, is a matter of "you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours."

Conventional Level

- **Stage 3: The Interpersonal Sharing Orientation**
  At this stage, people equate good behavior with whatever pleases or helps others and with what others approve of. Stage 3 thinkers often conform to stereotypical ideas of how the majority of people in their group behave. They often judge behavior by intentions, and they earn approval by being "nice."
- **Stage 4: The Societal Maintenance Orientation**
  Stage 4 thought orients toward authority, fixed rules, and the maintenance of the social order. Right or fair behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority, or maintaining the given social order for its own sake.

Principled Level

- **Stage 5: The Social Contract, Human Rights, and Welfare Orientation**
  People at Stage 5 tend to define right action in terms of general individual rights and standards which have been examined critically and agreed upon by the society in a document such as the Declaration of Independence, rather than unquestioningly accepting authority as in Stage 4. Stage 5 thinkers stress the legal point of view, but many emphasize the possibility of changing laws after rational consideration of the welfare of the society. Free agreement and contract bind people together where no laws apply.[14]

Kohlberg's work can be used to set up moral dilemmas which allow students to explore varying levels of moral reasoning.

Sources of affective objectives

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in its second assessment of Citizenship and Social Studies provided some good examples of affective objectives.

- Expresses awareness of some of the beliefs and values expressed by people and recognizes that the conditions, times and places in which people live influence their beliefs, values and behaviors.
- Develops the human relations skills necessary to communicate and work with others.
- Understands ways in which beliefs and values are transmitted in various cultures.
- Examines own beliefs and values and the interrelationships between and among beliefs, values, and behavior.
- Expresses awareness of the characteristics that give one identity.
- Expresses awareness of one's goals (aspirations), the goals of the groups with which one identifies, and the fit between those goals.
- Expresses awareness of the relative strengths of oneself and the groups with which one identifies and recognizes the societal barriers to full development that may exist.
- Assesses the extent to which one has control over the setting and achievement of personal goals in light of what one knows about oneself, the groups with which one identifies, and the societal barriers to full development.
- Suggests ways of maximizing one's effectiveness.
- Displays an awareness of a quality of human life and an interest in ways in which the quality can be improved.
- Explains and supports rights and freedoms important in human development.
- Participates in family, school and community life on the basis of rational decisions involving one's own values and the conflict among these values.

Each of these major objectives has subobjectives as well.[15]

PARTICIPATION COMPONENT

Social participation objectives are almost nonexistent. Yet, this is how students demonstrate that they have learned the essentials of citizenship. Some programs clearly include objectives that call for student participation in the community. While all classroom interaction can be termed participation, in this guide working within the local community constitutes participation. Social studies should provide many opportunities for students to experience democracy in action.

NAEP in its second assessment on Citizenship/Social Studies listed these goals for participation under the heading of "Participate in democratic civic improvement."

- Believe that each person's civic behavior is important and convey this belief to others.
- Favor organized civic action where it is needed.
- Actively work for civic improvement.
- Participate in local, state, and national governmental processes.
- Apply democratic procedures effectively in small groups.

The National Council for Social Studies has made it clear in its guidelines on curriculum and on multiethnic education that it expects students will become participatory members of society. Action learning is a part of the suggested ideal social studies curriculum.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has published a bulletin entitled *Action Learning: Student Community Service Projects.*[16] Although not aimed specifically at social studies, its guidelines are useful when developing participation objectives. Questions to be answered in planning action learning include:

- What are community needs and what specific class project might meet these needs?
- What background and insight will be needed in order to select objectives?
- How can administrative support be gained and the class organized?
- In what ways can community leaders and groups be involved?
- What supplies will be needed and what safeguards are essential?
- What definite directions must be given to students at the project's beginning?
- How can students feel some satisfaction as they proceed with each step?
- In what ways must this project be coordinated with other teachers in order to consider their needs?
- What records will be needed in order to issue progress reports, and how can these be given publicity?
- How can the class be debriefed after project completion in order to identify learning achievement, to summarize contributions, and to analyze procedures?

Another source of good objectives and material for social participation experiences is law-related educational materials. These often include information on how to have students become involved in efforts such as peer teaching, working with law enforcement and social service professionals, and studying community problems (see Appendix D).

Summary

Today's social studies curriculum developers must choose specific course objectives and content. They must consider both traditional disciplines and contemporary developments such as women's studies, future studies, ethnic studies and environmental studies. They must consider new ways of looking at traditional materials such as global education and law-related education. The committee must select the **knowledge** that is essential for future citizens. They must specify what **skills** are necessary. They must determine the role of **values** in the curriculum. They must choose the opportunities for responsible social **participation**. Finally, the social studies curriculum committee must consider how objectives relate to the needs of all the district's students. All deserve equal opportunities to excel in the content of the social studies curriculum.

Scope and Sequence 5

After content has been determined and specific objectives selected, the committee must develop an organized pattern of instruction for the entire school district, grades K–12. This pattern usually is known as the social studies scope and sequence.

Can the social studies have a scope and sequence? The answer reflects a curious combination of reality and assumption. Virtually every school system in the country offers social studies. Whether by accident or design, the topics, skills and issues addressed in the K–12 social studies experience represent a scope and sequence. When a district has allowed a program to evolve, or wither, without a plan, the scope and sequence may make little sense. When elementary programs ignore social studies in the early grades, critical skills may never be taught.

Major forces in the determination of a district's scope and sequence are the K–6 textbook series, the secondary school course textbooks, and the longstanding traditions and political forces that influence publishers. Often a district adopts a K–6 series consistent with its broad goals, then uses these books to help define the scope and sequence for its K–6 curriculum.

Social studies does not have a defined or research-based scope and sequence, nor does the state mandate one. Recent articles in *Social Education*, the journal of the National Council of the Social Studies, have called for a blue-ribbon committee to establish a scope and sequence for the field.

Faced with these circumstances, one might consider either an attitude of resignation—"Let's just use X's program; why waste time trying to reinvent the wheel?"— or an attitude of cynicism—"Why specify any scope and sequence; it really doesn't matter what you teach or when you teach it." A more positive and analytical approach is recommended. The committee can begin this effort recognizing that the four elements of knowledge, skills, values and participation described in Chapter 4 must be combined into a scope and sequence. The developers must identify not only the content but also the skills, values and social participatory experiences that will occur at each grade level. The materials which already have been selected should be placed in a logical order that meets the needs of all the district's students.

Likewise, it is essential that a curriculum committee consider offering a full K–12 social studies program. Districts that delay social studies instruction until the later elementary years find that most materials assume students already have acquired certain skills and experiences. Social studies is critical because it not only provides a medium through which reading and quantitative skills can be learned and applied, but also it offers the means through which a child can prepare for democratic citizenship. School districts that cut back their social studies programs may deny students opportunities to learn and practice citizenship.

Traditionally, the break between elementary and secondary social studies has been far wider than a change in program emphasis. Elementary programs, usually taught in self-contained classrooms, are replaced by secondary courses taught by social studies specialists. Articulation between elementary and secondary programs seldom is practiced. Units, topics and even materials used in upper elementary grades may reappear in grades 7 and 8, and yet again in grade 11. Thus, the two programs remain largely independent of each other, both resistant to change and closer coordination.

Patterns of scope and sequence

There have been three basic patterns in social studies. The traditional one has its basis in early understandings of child development and the 1916 curriculum report. The modified traditional pattern grew out of the curriculum projects of the 1960s. The nontraditional pattern also came from these projects. Each has its own merits.

Traditional sequence. The social studies for kindergarten through grade 6 traditionally followed a sequence generally known as the "expanding horizons"

approach. This sequence reflected certain assumptions about maturation. It assumed that a child's world expanded with age and that he or she could better understand regions after a study of communities or another culture after a study of the United States.

The secondary sequence included important assumptions about citizenship and Americanization and the need to teach American history and government to students likely to leave school before graduation. These ideas were embodied in a 1916 report that assumed students might leave school after grade 8.

The traditional sequence looked like this:

Kindergarten	Self, Home
Grade 1	Families
Grade 2	Neighborhoods
Grade 3	Communities
Grade 4	Geographic Regions, State History
Grade 5	United States History
Grade 6	Old World Backgrounds of U.S. History
Grade 7	World Geography
Grade 8	United States History and Civics
Grade 9	Ancient History
Grade 10	World History
Grade 11	United States History
Grade 12	United States Government or Problems of Democracy

Throughout this K–12 sequence, the scope of social studies was confined generally to history, geography and some economics and government. History tended to be taught from a political viewpoint, and it was largely male, white, middle class and patriotic.

Modified traditional sequence. The social studies curriculum projects of the sixties and early seventies produced some alteration in the scope and sequence but preserved much of the earlier format. Those few curriculum projects that attempted wholesale revision of the traditional K–12 sequence emerged battered, bloodied, and thoroughly cowed. The weight of generations taught in the traditional sequence, the extensive commitment of schools to the existing system, the inability of publishers to sell the new materials, and the absence of research to indicate the superiority of an alternative sequence all worked to limit acceptance of major revisions.

One of those generally accepted was a K–6 sequence which emphasized comparative study in the context of expanding horizons. This was known as the "modified expanding horizons approach." Rather than confining study to one's own family, a 1st grader might study an early American family, a native American family, a Ghanaian family and a Japanese family, comparing each with his or her own. Likewise, students in grades 2 through 4 compared modern American neighborhoods, communities and regions with similar political and social units in other places and at other times. The emphasis on comparison introduced sociological and anthropological concepts into the elementary grades, as well as more sophisticated work in history, geography and economics. The grade 5 course was

expanded to incorporate all of the many groups that have contributed to United States history. Grade 6 students now learned about cultures other than those in Europe. Today most K-6 social studies textbook series reflect this expanding horizons approach.

There was not only a shift in content, but also there was a change in emphasis. The social studies of the sixties and seventies de-emphasized factual learning in favor of conceptual learning. The Connecticut framework published in the early seventies adopted this approach, suggesting the concepts and generalizations to be taught at various grade levels but leaving the choice of content to the districts.

The secondary social studies program also expanded its scope and varied its sequence, although within limits. American history remained well-entrenched in grades 8 and 11, although some new emphasis was given to racial and ethnic minorities, women, social and urban history. Grades 7, 9, 10 and 12 expanded alternatives to include study of a specific social science discipline (anthropology, sociology, economics, psychology), area studies (the Far East, Africa, Latin America, the Middle East), and issues-oriented courses (women's studies, black studies, environmental studies, contemporary problems, future studies, law-related studies and the humanities). In the absence of a clearly defined scope and sequence, these offerings have remained somewhat at the mercy of the budgetary cleaver. Where serious retrenchment is underway, one can discern a return to the traditional approach.

Nontraditional sequence. A few of the major curriculum projects attempted to devise a totally new scope and sequence. They carefully articulated a program for grades K–12. One of these was the Greater Cleveland Social Science Program. Its scope and sequence was as follows:

Kindergarten	Learning About Our World Children in Other Lands
Grade 1	Learning About Our Country Explorers and Discoverers
Grade 2	Communities at Home and Abroad Communities in the United States
Grade 3	The Making of Anglo-America The Metropolitan Community
Grade 4	The Story of Agriculture The Story of Industry India: A Society in Transition (Area Study)
Grade 5	The Human Adventure I: Ancient Civilization The Human Adventure II: Classical Civilization The Human Adventure III: Medieval Civilization The Middle East (Area Study)
Grade 6	The Human Adventure IV: The Rise of Modern Civilization The Human Adventure V: The Coming

	of World Civilization
	Latin America (Area Study)
Grade 7	The Human Adventure VI: Recent and Contemporary Civilization
	Principles of Geography
	Africa (Area Study)
Grade 8	Six Generations of Americans—the Colonies and the Young Republic
	Six Generations of Americans—the Growth of a Titan: 1855–1910
	North America and the Caribbean (Area Study)
Grade 9	The Political and Economic Systems of the United States and the Soviet Union
	The USSR: Politics and Economics of a Totalitarian Society
	Europe (Area Study)
Grade 10	The History of Civilization and Great Ideas I
	The Far East (Area Study)
Grade 11	The History of Civilization and Great Ideas II
	The Pacific Ocean and Australia (Area Study)
Grade 12	American Constitutional Government
	Research and Problems in the Social Sciences

Even this effort retains some ties to the traditional framework. Although part of this project has been published commercially, it has not won wide acceptance and its nontraditional pattern has had little impact.

Another change in the traditional sequence was in the placement of local and state history. In the nontraditional sequence, it was placed appropriately throughout the curriculum. Following this practice, a scope and sequence for the elementary social studies program might look like this:

Kindergarten	School and neighborhood environments
	Children's families
	Local seasons
Grade 1	Relationship of seasons to occupations
	Community and state resources
	Local community history
	Local community occupations
	Community change over time
Grade 2	Communication in community and state
	Interdependence of community and state
	Local tool use

	Community and state land use
	Specialization in the community
	School rules and community laws
Grade 3	Using local and state maps
	Explaining development of nearest city
	Examination of local community or nearest city in terms of central business district, suburbs and hinterlands
	Survey of composition and density of local population (or nearest city)
	Producers and consumers in community and state
	Goods and services in community and state
	Assembly lines in local industries
	Community pollution problems and environmental protection
	Community and state economic development resources
Grade 4	Anthropological case study of one or more community ethnic groups
	Local culture contacts and influences
	People's roles in community and state
	Community and state family types
	Role of minorities within state
	Role of cities within state
	Mobility in community and state
Grade 5	Parallel state history with national history
	Cultural study of local native people
	Important community and state values
	Local and state government
	Community and state conflicts and their resolution
Grade 6	Technology in local and state development
	Community and state economic forces: market, production, supply and demand, resources, ecology
	Local and state material culture
	Local cultural change
	Interdependence of the community, the state, the nation, and the world
Grade 7	State geography
	Examination of areal association, spatial interaction, diffusion, sequent occupance and other concepts for community and state
Grade 8	Role of community and state in national history

Many districts still use this integrated placement of local and state history, geography, and other social science information.

Construction of scope and sequence

Before developing a new social studies scope and sequence, the committee should examine the current one for strengths to be retained. Examination of commercial programs or other districts' scopes and sequences may be useful. The committee should consider the importance of introducing a defined, coordinated program for all grades if such a program does not now exist. Finally, the following considerations should be part of the task of constructing the social studies scope and sequence.

Students' intellectual maturity. The committee should recognize the essential fact that students vary in their abilities to work with abstract concepts. Jean Piaget maintained that students progress developmentally from concrete to abstract with a concomitant need for "hands-on" experience in the early grades and with the less intellectually mature students at any grade level. Dale's "Cone of Experience" represents one mode of this progression (see Figure 2).

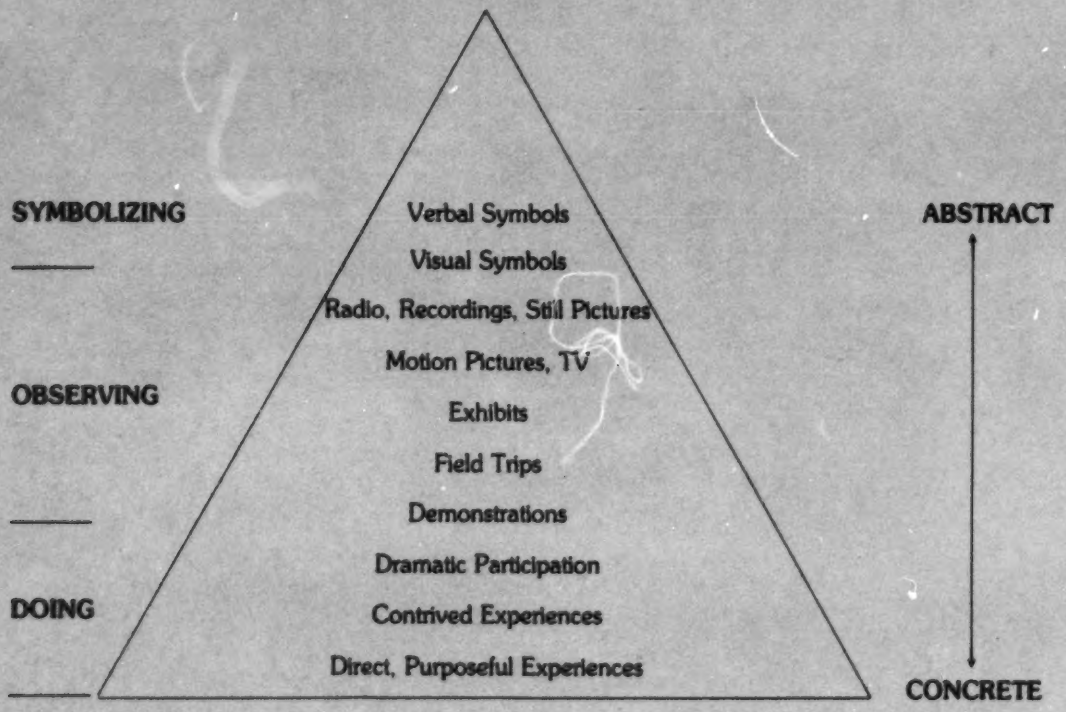


Figure 2
Dale's Cone of Experience

Jerome Bruner offers a slightly altered view of this model. Bruner maintains that "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development." Students can understand abstract concepts at a very early age, although they might require concrete instructional techniques. A curriculum committee need not shy away from abstract content so long as instructional techniques and materials are available to help less mature students grasp the concepts.

This is particularly important in the area of values education and moral development. Some researchers contend that younger children lack the cognitive development to handle moral dilemmas beyond the concrete level. They theorize that older students better understand the concept of authority, but such abstract principles as rights, moral principles and justice are difficult even for high school students. Other researchers suggest that even young children can grasp abstract moral concepts if appropriately presented. Writers of an affective scope and sequence may wish to keep these considerations in mind or refer to Clive Beck's model [17] (see Appendix I).

Students' interest level. Most topics can be made interesting to most students most of the time. A curriculum committee may identify students' interests at each grade level. One way would be giving an interest inventory to a selected student sample and considering its results in developing the scope and sequence. The local community's needs and attitudes also can provide clues to student interests. As students become involved in community activities such as sports, scouting and the world or work, certain topics are more likely to attract their interest.

There are also psychological clues as to what students' interests might be. Erikson's stages of development have applicability for schooling, and these seem most pertinent:

- **Initiative versus guilt:** child tests autonomy and begins realizing he or she is a person who can act and who can wonder what he or she will be (ages 4–7).
- **Industry versus inferiority:** child tries to master some of the tools and techniques of the culture, developing feelings of competence if successful or of inferiority if unsuccessful (ages 7–11).
- **Identity versus identity diffusion:** adolescent develops sense of self-concept and of future and expects recognition from the immediate community, or the adolescent does not relate successfully to the environment (ages 12–18).[18]

Another model is designed primarily for elementary children. Hoffman and Ryan suggest four developmental stages to which a teacher can match appropriate learning. These stages are:

- **initial exploratory stage**—primarily preschool children, exploring the physical and social environment;
- **structured dependent stage**—preschool until about ten, dependent on adults and others to stimulate and structure what is done;
- **structured independent stage**—from ten until early teens, some independent choices, but environment determined by adults, and

- **Independent exploratory stage**—adolescence (although some elementary children reach it), chooses learning activities and develops alternatives.[19]

Developers of the social studies scope and sequence may wish to take account of these stages of development.

Balance. The committee must examine the content carefully for balance. The members must have, in Charles Keller's words, "the courage to omit." They can ask these questions:

- Does the K–12 program expose students to a wide range of cultures, issues, problems and geographic regions?
- Does the program include a broad range of social science and historical concepts?
- Are state and local history and government included at appropriate points in the curriculum?
- Does each grade level have assigned skills, values experiences, and social participation activities?
- Is there unnecessary repetition in the scope and sequence?

Continuity. The developers should evaluate the scope and sequence to determine if it has a logical, integrated flow of knowledge, skill, values and participation. The committee need not debate endlessly whether a student needs to know latitude and longitude before studying life in Japan. The committee does need to consider how each might be taught without knowledge of the other, and how teachers might build on a knowledge of one to teach the other. In short, a sequence is not inherently right or wrong. Planners must define a logical sequence that insures continuity and uses previously learned knowledge and skills.

Importance. Here the developers risk attracting the ire of every interest group as well as the pressure to adopt what is currently in vogue. One test that can be applied is to ask how and when the topic, skill, concept or issue under discussion will be used in the students' future social studies experiences. If the information is not to be used in relationship to something more general and to build toward something else in the K–12 sequence, it probably is not important.

Community resources. Individual districts have unique resources which are of particular interest or importance to specific age groups. A local museum may have a staff that works especially well with younger children. A local business may not permit tours until students are a certain age. In planning a social studies sequence, curriculum developers should place topics and activities at the levels that will allow the most advantageous use of local resources.

Teacher resources. The curriculum committee should consider the staff's strengths and weaknesses and should decide:

- Is it worth altering a sequence drastically if teachers with known skill in teaching certain topics and skills can no longer do so?
- Should the grade level with the least experienced staff be asked to make the greatest adjustment for the new social studies program?

If the answers are "yes," the committee should plan what assistance and support will be necessary to insure the best results.

Time allotment

A Guide to Curriculum Development: Purposes, Practices and Procedures discusses time allotments of the various content areas in terms of the total school program. The amount of time allotted to any one subject area is governed by a number of factors: the philosophy and goals of the district, the separateness or interdisciplinary role of the content area, the instructional needs of the students, and the scope and sequence.

Based on the legal requirement of at least 900 hours of actual school work per school year, or an average five-hour instructional day, the recommended formal time allotment for social studies appears below.

Time Recommendations

Grades	Minutes Per Week	Periods Per Week
1- 3	75 to 150	
4- 6	120 to 200	
(6) 7-12		5

It must be remembered, however, that most primary teachers are teaching social studies all day long, for whenever they are dealing with social studies content in the reading lesson, with interpersonal relationships and with the children's adjustment to their peer group, social studies learning should be taking place. This is also true in grades 4–6.

Summary

The scope and sequence is determined after consideration of what is best in the current curriculum, what is desired in the new curriculum, and what local constraints exist. The scope and sequence also must reflect the needs of all social studies students with their diverse intellectual and physical capabilities. After an appropriate scope and sequence is established, then instructional techniques must be considered.

Instructional Techniques 6

The issues relating to instructional techniques grow out of an interrelationship among content, the traditional modes of instruction, the insights of learning psychologists, the diversity of the student population, and wide-ranging experiments in teaching strategies. None of these factors can be ignored. The curriculum writers must grapple with the relative virtues and drawbacks of each in order to recommend some reasoned approach to teachers.

Traditional modes of instruction reflected a set of premises which emphasized content more than the learner. Learning psychology favored a didactic approach characterized by exposition, lecture, recitation and drill. The teacher's role was to explain and describe the content and to test the student's understanding. Teaching strategies concentrated on raising questions on the text or content, directed discussion or reinforcing activities. The course's sequence would be dictated by the content rather than by the learners.

Insights from the "new social studies" have diverged from the traditional premises and emphases. The research of Piaget on the developmental nature of cognition focused attention on how children think. The inquiry approach of Fenton emphasized "how" children were taught more than "what" they were taught, becoming a key hallmark of the "new social studies." The contrast between traditional approaches and contemporary approaches has great significance for instructional techniques.

The issues are more complex than simply a debate over the proper balance between didactic and inquiry methods. The use of the historical method as a teaching mode, begun decades ago, presaged the technique of making students into fledgling historians, economists, sociologists or other social scientists. The emphasis on social scientists, in turn, reflected Bruner's theory about the teachability of intellectual disciplines. This required instructional techniques that bridge the requirements of the content and the child, the teacher and the learner.

Additional considerations stem from the affective dimension of social studies. The instructional theories developed by Louis Raths in respect to valuing and by

Lawrence Kohlberg in respect to moral education shed new light on this instructional aspect. Pressures greatly increased on the social studies curriculum of the sixties to deal with social reality. Instructional techniques designed to develop decision-making skills and to nurture value and attitudinal growth have become part of the social studies repertoire.

An additional challenge in choosing instructional techniques is the diversity of the student population. More and more handicapped children are mainstreamed into regular classrooms, creating special challenges for the curriculum developers to provide instructional techniques to be used with these students. Many schools also have an ethnic population which speaks English as a second language. Rarely are materials available in the students' primary languages; therefore, techniques must be provided for adaptation to their needs.

A final factor in selecting instructional techniques is the increasing technology available for instruction. Computers, teaching machines, programmed instruction, videotapes, cassettes, instructional television, films and many other items are now available. These must be factored into the curriculum.

One result of the "new social studies" has been the availability of a wide range of instructional techniques to meet the diverse goals of citizenship education. A fuller recognition now exists that teaching styles and learning styles should be matched for optimal effect. Consequently, teachers are encouraged to employ eclectic strategies suited to their students' needs.

Any social studies curriculum requires a mix of instructional strategies. Any one used too often is bound to be boring to the students. Therefore, even if a particular text focuses on inquiry, there should be other strategies used in class.

The characteristics and possible applications of major instructional techniques are discussed briefly in this chapter. The chart (Table 2) indicates the most significant contributions of each technique to the areas of knowledge, skills, values and social participation.

Lecture

When the teacher wishes to give students a great deal of factual information about a topic, either as background or in response to questions for which there is no available data on the students' level, the lecture method is appropriate. Today, some teachers have been made to feel guilty about its use, but it still has its place. A short lecture presenting facts certainly is much better than having students struggle for days seeking information which they could have received from the teacher in an organized 15-minute lecture. It frequently is useful with students who have reading disabilities and who can learn more effectively from oral modes of instruction.

Directed discussion

The directed discussion permits the teacher to stimulate student thinking, to raise questions, and to marshal information while seeking to structure the learning

experience. Directed discussion can be used for either cognitive or affective learning.

The degree of openness during the discussion depends on the teacher's comments and questions. Convergent or divergent thinking may be elicited. This technique may prove very effective for the development and reinforcement of knowledge.

Some considerations for successful discussion are:

- Is the topic worth thinking and talking about?
- Is the atmosphere free and respectful of student ideas?
- Do students have sufficient time to think about questions?
- Are students seated in ways that encourage pupil-to-pupil interaction?

Directed discussion is one way in which the instructor can serve as both teacher and participant.

Group interaction

The purposes of group interaction are: sharing work among students, developing social skills of cooperation and problem solving, stimulating discussion of diverse

Table 2
Most Significant Areas of Usefulness for Selected Techniques

Instructional Technique	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Participation
Case studies	X		X	
Charting	X	X		
Conceptual development	X	X		
Decision making		X	X	
Directed discussion	X		X	
Drill	X	X		
Games and simulation		X		X
Group interaction		X		X
Independent study	X	X		
Lecture	X	X		
Questioning	X	X		
Role playing	X		X	
Technologies	X	X		
Valuing			X	X

points of view, developing student responsibility, and organizing and acting on plans of action. Group interaction takes varying forms, quite different from directed discussion. These are: committee work, panel discussions, presentations and reports, projects, dramatizations, buzz groups or round-table discussions.

While group interaction techniques contribute to all aspects of social studies goals (knowledge, skills, values, social participation), they are most essential in the development of social participation. This relationship needs to be recognized in curriculum development.

It is in group interaction that many students who are not academically able can make good contributions. They often can work with others of greater ability to produce group projects. They can gain knowledge and skills from group interactions that they cannot gain from books.

Decision making

Decision-making techniques stimulate conditions which give students practice in making decisions and develop patterns which students can use to facilitate decision making. In social studies, decisions may relate to intellectual, social, economic, political, historical or personal problems. Both thinking and valuing processes are tapped.

One simple mode of decision making has been suggested by Banks and Clegg in *Teaching Strategies for the Social Studies: Inquiry, Valuing and Decision-making*.[20] This model is given in figure 3.

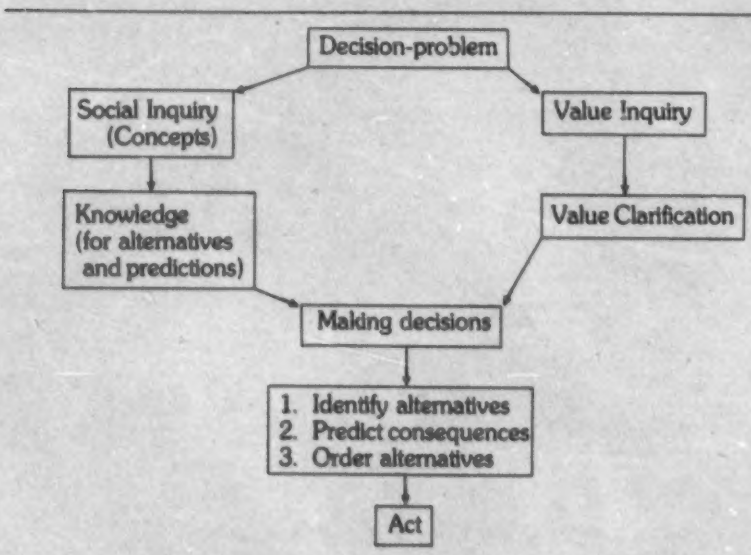


Figure 3
Banks-Clegg Model for Decision Making

Another process is given in Thomas and Brubaker, *Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies.*[21] This model is given in figure 4.

A third simple model that can be applied to numerous social studies situations as a way to train students in the process of analysis prior to decision making is shown below. Students compile a simple chart for each problem.

Problem	Options	Predicted Consequences	Choice
	1. 2. 3. 4.	—< —< —< —<	

All students should have some experiences in decision making. The complexity of the selected model will depend in large measure on the students' maturity and skill levels.

Questioning

A familiar social studies technique has been questioning. Considerable research has developed a sophisticated data base that affords significant guidance to teacher and curriculum writer. Bloom's *Taxonomy* (see Chapter 4) identifies basic cognitive levels for which questions should be constructed. Other researchers have tested how important are varying levels of questions. The research shows

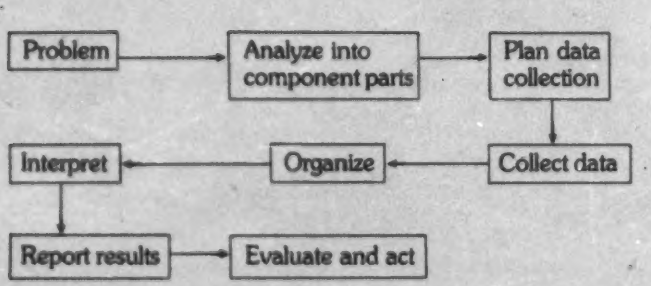


Figure 4
Thomas-Brubaker Model

that questions at all levels should be asked in order to encourage students to think at all levels.

Wesley and Wronski in *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools*[22] identify the following functions for questions:

- Testing the student's preparation of the lesson
- Discovering errors and misunderstandings
- Providing review and drill
- Stimulating interest
- Supplying incentives
- Emphasizing important points
- Developing varied types of thinking
- Affording students opportunities for interaction
- Establishing relationships
- Developing an organization of content
- Insuring proper interpretations
- Securing attention
- Presenting problems rhetorically

They also suggest that there are many different types of questions to ask. Among them are:

recall	proof
qualified recall	description
comparison	characterization
contrast	relationship
evaluation	summary
cause	criticism
effect	application
illustration	organization
classification	alternative
generalization	analysis
definition	synthesis

Types of questions can be adjusted to the learning styles of students and to their mental maturity.

Conceptual development

The teaching of concepts helps students relate the vast amount of information confronting them to key ideas that can be referred to and developed throughout the school year and in the future. Concepts permit students to compare and contrast human societies.

Two strategies for developing and for attaining concepts permit teachers to begin at the concrete or the abstract level. Conceptual learning can be used in skill building, in knowledge acquisition, and in value inquiry. Fraenkel in *Helping Students Think and Value*[23] suggests the following method for developing concepts. It is based on Taba's research. The teacher asks:

- Listing question(s): What do you see?
- Grouping question(s): What items go together?
- Explaining question(s): Why did you put them together?
- Labeling question(s): What do you call this group?
- Explaining question(s): Why did you give it that label?
- Recombining question(s): Can some of these belong in more than one group?

Fraenkel also suggests this method for attaining concepts.

The teacher:

- states the concept
- gives examples
- gives nonexamples
- asks for attributes
- asks for definition
- asks for identification
- asks for an original example

Both of these methods can be used with all types of students.

Drill

Repetitive use of certain information or certain skills seems most appropriate for basic items necessary for all students. Possible examples might include basic political science terms, the names of the 50 states, the use of latitude and longitude, or the development of cost-benefit tables. The teacher's challenge is to include necessary drill without boring the students. Repetitive exercises may be scattered throughout the year in order to insure mastery, rather than bunching the exercises in a unit of work. Machines may be used for variety.

The use of drill in small groups is particularly appropriate for students having academic difficulties or with language difficulty. They may have drill on social studies vocabulary or on specific skills. Often, game formats are used for drill.

Case studies

The case study approach has been adapted successfully from law and business schools to the teaching of historic, economic, political, social and legal issues in social studies. Documentation of various sides of an issue is presented to students, forcing them to recognize the conflicting values, premises and interests involved. The discussion or role playing that can develop serves to broaden understandings and to clarify values. Case studies are useful in helping students develop critical reading and thinking skills.

For students who have certain handicaps, the case study materials can be taped, presented in visual clips, or demonstrated using maps and charts. All students should be able to participate.

Games and simulations

Games and simulations provide mechanisms for students to explore topics in formats that encourage thought, decision making and participation. They allow students to examine models of reality and to have the fun and excitement of participation in that reality. No game or simulation, however, is worthwhile as a teaching tool unless a careful debriefing takes place. As students examine what happened in the activity and what they have learned, they clarify the experience.

With contemporary curricular pressures, a committee must consider certain questions before planning to use a simulation.

- How much time is involved for introduction? For play? For debriefing?
- How many students can participate?
- For what kinds of students is it suitable?
- What background information is required?
- What is the most appropriate classroom use?
- Is the simulation sufficiently valuable to justify the time involved?
- Is this the best way to achieve instructional goals?

If the responses are sufficiently positive, then the simulation should become part of the curriculum.

Games and simulations often are useful with students having learning difficulties. They usually require less verbal skill than reading, motivate students to participate, and develop a sense of self worth. Therefore, in planning techniques for handling individual differences, games and simulations should receive serious consideration.

Role playing

The need for empathy and understanding of remote or abstract events frequently can be developed most effectively through simple role plays. The main characters and issue can be illuminated by assigning roles (with or without role cards) and describing a brief scenario. The acting out of the roles within the context of the situation dramatizes the context of the event. It can clarify the facts of an event or the purposes of a process, or it can demonstrate value conflicts.

The best simulations often are structured role plays. For example, law-related education makes extensive use of mock trials that provide participatory experiences for students while clarifying concepts. The mock United Nations sponsored by the World Affairs Center of Hartford is another example. These role plays are more complex than those that a teacher may devise but they have the same learning potential.

Charting

The completion of charts has found multiple uses in social studies classes. Charts permit individuals or groups to gather and categorize information which is particularly helpful in developing thinking skills. More specific purposes include data

retrieval, comparison, relationship and organization. Two examples of charts appear below.

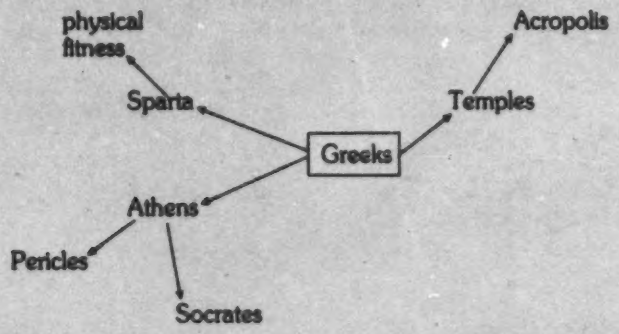
Comparison

Group	Homes	Tools	Weapons
American Indians	Longhouse	Stone Ax	Bow and Arrow
Pioneers	Log Cabin	Adze	Gun

Relationship

Invention	Consequence
Printing Press	Spread of Information

A variation of charting is the webbing technique. This is a visual way to organize subheadings or to stimulate associative thinking. An example is given below.



Affective strategies

The teaching of values poses difficult problems for social studies. The very nature of social studies material makes it value-laden. The goals of democratic citizenship presume the internalization of a set of values. Intellectual endeavor and democratic tolerance discourage direct indoctrination of values. Open examination of, and confrontation with, value conflicts and the analysis of value premises has characterized the most widely accepted ideal of social studies.

The values clarification method fosters the identification of divergent sides of an issue and encourages students to make a commitment towards action after working through seven valuing processes. Raths, Harmin and Simon in *Values and Teaching*[24] define these as:

- choosing freely
- choosing from alternatives
- choosing thoughtfully and reflectively

- prizing and cherishing
- affirming
- acting upon choices
- repeating action over time

Kohlberg's work on moral reasoning has been used to set up moral dilemmas. Students work through them and their answers are evaluated for the stage of reasoning shown (see pages 29–30).

Krathwohl's *Taxonomy* for the affective domain (see page 30) is not only a determinant of content but also the basis for instructional techniques. Questions and activities can be devised for each of its levels.

Coombs and Meux suggest that there is a value decision-making process. Their model includes these steps:

- identifying and clarifying the value question
- assembling purported facts
- assessing the truth of purported facts
- clarifying the relevance of facts
- arriving at a tentative value decision
- testing the value principle implied in the decision

A full explanation of the process is found in *Values Education: Rationale, Strategies, and Procedures*, the 41st Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.[25]

There are many other models for teaching affective education. A listing of these can be found in Appendix H.

Independent study

This technique may take several forms, all of which give major responsibility to the learner for shaping how and what will be learned. Independent study includes projects, group work, research reports, community action and internships. Usually, independent study extends over a period of days or weeks. Students receive guidance from teachers and/or consultants. Any independent study involves planning, setting purposes, gathering information and/or experience, reporting and assessing the results.

A more structured method of independent study has been developed for dealing with talented and underachieving students. Under this plan, students first decide how long they will spend on a curriculum topic or unit, thus controlling the element of time. Students next determine what materials they will use for their study. The next step allows the students to sequence the materials and topics in the curriculum. This may involve the substitution of new topics for those which are part of the existing curriculum. Finally, the students evaluate their own performance. Students do not always complete this entire process, but it does allow them to take control over some measure of their instruction.

Technologies

The use of technology plays an important role in today's classroom. The computer, the calculator, videotape equipment, cassette recorders and other hardware are available. Each school district has its own technological resources. There is every indication that more will be used in the schools of the future.

The computer provides one of the best opportunities for social studies instruction. Already developed are computer games to teach concepts in economics, political science and geography. Others help students simulate historical events and manipulate data. Computer programs can be used for drill in specific skills or to provide individualized instruction by retaining a curricular plan for each student. Microcomputers are making additional software available.

Instructional television programs are another means that can be used with many students. These visual presentations can extend students' knowledge of foreign countries, introduce them to historical fiction, present difficult concepts, and enlighten them about world issues. Information about current programming is available from the Connecticut Public Television network.

The use of traditional media such as films, filmstrips, and tapes or records is important because they can provide recreations of actual events, develop a sense of immediacy about what is happening, and assist students whose learning styles are not textbook-oriented. Most school media centers have many materials which are useful in meeting the individual needs of students or in updating social studies textbooks with more contemporary information. Districts that may not have computers or classroom television usually have traditional media for supplementing the curriculum.

Mainstreaming

State laws guarantee children an education that allows them to develop to the fullest possible extent within their capabilities. From the isolation that many children with special needs found in the sixties, they have emerged into the regular classroom, filled with both hopes and fears. The process of mainstreaming into the regular classroom setting children with problems of learning disabilities, mental retardation, hearing impairment, emotional handicaps, visual impairment, speech and language disorders, and physical disabilities has required adjustments in instructional techniques. Often the regular classroom teacher does not feel prepared to instruct children with these problems. Assistance is needed.

The task is complex and cannot be addressed in this brief volume. One document available to help in adjusting curriculum to meet special needs is *Social Studies in the Mainstreamed Classroom, K–6*[26] available from the Social Science Education Consortium (see Appendix D). It includes identification of the problems of each group and suggests ways in which to adapt materials and techniques to their needs. Unfortunately, it does not address the problems of what to do about students in grades 7–12, but many of the suggestions are applicable.

There is also a packet of material for helping students with visual handicaps. This set of booklets is available from the Social Science Education Consortium as well. It covers everything from the visual problems themselves to how to teach social studies to these students and what materials are most suitable.

There is another category of students with special needs—gifted and talented children. They too have special needs for materials and instructional techniques which will challenge their minds and require them to give their best to the social studies program. The committee may wish to include suggestions applicable to them in the social studies curriculum.

There are many learning disabilities which must be considered as well. The book on elementary mainstreaming mentions ways in which to provide these students with the fun of learning in the regular classroom. All of these children need special instructional techniques if the social studies is to be a rewarding experience.

Resource units

Resource units are valuable in curriculum guides because they provide many teaching suggestions. They can include objectives, generalizations, student activities, learning materials, outside resources and a model unit. They suggest more materials than can be used to teach a single topic including materials and ideas built up over a period of years. The model unit demonstrates ways in which a teacher might structure student learning over a period of weeks, drawing on the wealth of materials suggested. Useful resource units indicate how knowledge, skills, values and social participation can be interrelated for effective instruction.

There are many possible formats for such units. The Taba and Michaelis models are shown here.

Taba Resource Unit Model	
Main Idea: **Organizing Idea:**	
Notes to the teacher Listing of content Skills Generalizations Hypothesizing Attitudes	**Learning Activities** Opening or Motivating Developmental Culminating/Summarizing Evaluation

Michaelis Resource Unit Model

Concepts to be developed	Learning Experiences	Materials and Resources
Basic needs	Study map contrast	Atlas wall map

Resource units offer an excellent way to accommodate the individual differences among learners. They can suggest activities on many levels of difficulty and interest for varied learning styles, and include multiple approaches for reaching handicapped students.

Summary

The instructional techniques available in social studies are many and varied. The curriculum committee needs to consider the demands of its rationale and goals, the selected content, the scope and sequence that has been identified, and then it needs to suggest appropriate instructional techniques at all grade levels and for all students. If the techniques suggested to the staff are new, the committee should plan ways in which teachers can be trained to use them. Finally, the techniques selected will influence the materials which are chosen for social studies instruction.

Selecting Instructional Materials 7

Unlike Mark Hopkins, modern-day teachers need more than a log for effective instruction. More than likely, today's competent social studies teacher uses a panoply of instructional materials—textbooks, films, kits, tapes, records—to facilitate and to enhance the instructional process.

This chapter will assist educators and other curriculum developers in evaluating a variety of instructional materials. It discusses how to assess the strengths and

weaknesses of textbooks and how to evaluate other instructional material such as films, records and audiovisual kits. It also examines how to measure ethnic, sexual, and handicapped stereotypes in textbooks and how to determine the readability of printed materials.

Recent research studies on the status of social studies curricula point out that commercially published textbooks are the most common means for teaching social studies. This has a number of serious implications since textbooks can easily become outdated, can contribute to destructive stereotyping, and can portray groups negatively.

Present instructional realities almost mandate the use of multiple instructional materials in today's social studies classroom. The typical teacher has students who represent varying ability levels, widely differing socioeconomic backgrounds, and a variety of ethnic heritages. To meet student needs, social studies teachers need to use diverse instructional materials. Selecting appropriate materials is a formidable task.

The less able students typically are handicapped by poor reading ability. This poses special problems for social studies education which generally depends on the printed word. Therefore, printed materials must be selected with great care. Furthermore, steps must be taken to insure that students understand what they read. In order to meet the needs of all students, it may be necessary to use instructional materials that stress the concrete over the abstract, the tangible over the elusive, and the straightforward over the complex.

All of these realities speak to the design and use of nontraditional print and nonprint instructional materials. Although publishers recently have come to recognize this need, curriculum developers may find it desirable or necessary to seek out or to create nontraditional materials. Models, artifacts, pictures and other manipulative materials are especially valuable because they make the learning process both concrete and meaningful. Field trips, demonstrations, dramatizations, exhibits, collections and model-building enhance the instructional process. The rule of thumb should be to create instructional materials that are concrete, manipulative and not too complex. Some nontraditional materials may be designed to serve remedial purposes, but most of them should be developmental, contributing to the systematic acquisition of knowledge and skills.

Finally, there is an overriding financial consideration. As materials are being evaluated, committees need to perform cost-benefit analyses and seek materials that:

- seem suitable to the maturity level of the students;
- further the selected educational goals and objectives;
- are the highest quality available for the money, and
- do not sacrifice instructional quality for purposes of limiting the cost.

Criteria for selection

Before examining any instructional materials, the curriculum committee should have before it the rationale and goals, the selected objectives and content, and the

instructional techniques which are to be stressed. If the committee is planning only elementary curriculum then the goals and techniques may be sufficient. Other aspects of the elementary curriculum will be determined after materials selection. For secondary courses, however, all elements should be completed before material selection begins.

The committee should develop a clear set of criteria on which to base its decisions. One approach to selecting evaluative criteria is to analyze publications that can guide the committee. The following publications may be useful.

Improving the Use of Social Studies Textbooks. William E. Patton, editor. Bulletin 63. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies.

Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines. Position Statement. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies.

Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education. Position Statement. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies.

Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines, and Resources. James Davis and Frances Haley, editors. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.

Curriculum Materials Analysis System, Short Form or *Long Form.* Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.

Once the committee has established clearly the criteria on which they will base their decisions, they are ready to proceed to the next stage of the process, familiarization with the materials and evaluation of them.

Materials survey and analysis

There are several ways to become familiar with curriculum materials. The steps outlined below are suggestions, beginning with the acquisition of materials and proceeding systematically to an in-depth analysis of them.

Survey what materials are available. Contact publishers' representatives or attend state, regional or national social studies meetings which include publishers' displays. Review professional publications such as *Social Education*, the *Social Studies* or the Social Science *Data Book* for information. Visit a regional service center.

Examine sample copies of the materials. Read the preface or introduction and the teacher's guide, if there is one. It usually explains the rationale, program assumptions and use of materials. Examine the table of contents and read selected portions of the text, perhaps focusing on the same topic in each for comparison.

Analyze the materials. Use a checklist selected from those in *A Guide to Curriculum Development: Purposes, Practices and Procedures.*

Make a tentative selection and field test the materials.

Evaluate the field test results and make final selection.

This sequence may not always be feasible or possible because of time or financial considerations.

A hasty decision, however, may result in the selection of curriculum materials which are ill-suited for the students' instructional needs. Once a school or school system has committed itself to particular materials, they are usually used for five or more years.

Analysis for sexual stereotypes

Most social studies textbooks and curriculum materials published after 1977 have made significant progress in correcting sexual stereotypes. Materials can be analyzed using checklists and quantitative approaches.

A simple first step to determine the degree of sexual stereotyping is a checklist evaluation based on the following criteria:[28]

- portrayal of females in passive settings while males are portrayed in vigorous activities;
- use of masculine language to describe hypothetical persons;
- female interests characterized as self, home and school while male interests are characterized as the community and the world;
- disproportionate coverage of male roles and problems as compared to the roles and problems of females;
- males portrayed as main characters or exemplary persons disporportionately to females as main characters or exemplary persons;
- males shown more frequently in illustrations than females in similar settings;
- females portrayed in nurturing occupations while males are portrayed in high status career roles, and
- the female identity defined by using the male as a reference.

If a preliminary analysis reveals evidence of sexual stereotyping in one or more of these areas (language, occupations, illustrations or roles), then a simple quantitative analysis can be made. For example, stereotyping in illustrations can be checked quantitatively by determining the proportion of females to males in illustrations. While the ideal ratio would be 1:1, the reviewer will have to determine the actual ratio and decide if it is disproportionate.

There is a caveat to this type of examination of social studies materials. In an effort to eliminate sexual stereotyping, there is sometimes a straining of authenticity in order to include women. The committee must evaluate the subject matter and the relative historical roles which men and women have played.

Analysis for ethnic stereotypes

In recent years a new pluralism has emerged in American society. As a result of this ethnic revitalization, many Americans are strengthened by their ethnic heritage; conversely, some Americans experience discrimination because of their ethnic affiliations.

The National Council for the Social Studies recently underscored ethnic diversity as a positive, integral ingredient in American society. The NCSS *Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education* provides guidance for designing, implementing and evaluating ethnic studies programs.

A number of criteria can be used to detect the presence of ethnic stereotyping in social studies materials. The following checklist is a useful first step:[29]

- the pluralistic qualities of the nation are characterized in print and visuals;
- ethnic individuals/families are accurately depicted in illustrations and photographs;
- attempts are made to avoid presenting stereotypes of ethnics in their historic and contemporary roles;
- members of ethnic groups are presented as prominent individuals and as members of groups;
- both the positive and negative aspects of an ethnic group's participation in American society are reflected in the materials;
- the most significant aspects of an ethnic group's values and traditions are portrayed, and
- accurate, scholarly, and current information on all ethnic groups is presented.

If the preliminary analysis reveals evidence of tokenism, omissions or lack of balance, a simple quantitative analysis can be completed following the procedure for sexual stereotyping.

The committee must be wary, however. Not all of the questions will apply to every set of materials. Strained inclusion of ethnic groups is as unacceptable as their exclusion.

Materials for the handicapped

The mainstreaming of handicapped children into social studies classes and the stress on their education in as normal a setting as possible has implication for the selection of instructional materials as well as techniques. First, the committee should insure that materials incorporate handicapped people in a variety of settings and circumstances. Then, materials should be examined in the same ways as for sexual and ethnic stereotyping. Both the handicapped students and their nonhandicapped peers need materials which provide positive role models.

The modified Cloze Test

The modified Cloze Test is used to determine the readability of printed material. This test involves deleting every fifth word of a selection from the textbook to be used until 50 words have been deleted. With younger children, the selections are often shorter, with as few as ten words deleted. The omitted words should not include proper nouns unless they are self-evident words or specific dates. The students then are required to replace the deleted words on a copy of the selection. While most material normally used in social studies classes is suitable, poetry and drama should not be selected.

Students must use the word omitted or its synonym to be correct. Minor spelling errors are permissible. The important factor is that the student's word choice preserves the meaning of the passage (see Appendix J for a sample).

If the students are correct 75 percent or more of the time, they should be able to read and understand the materials without teacher assistance. If students are correct from 50 to 75 percent of the time, they need teacher assistance in the form of class discussion prior to reading, guide questions, vocabulary drill, or other pre-reading helps. If students are correct less than 50 percent of the time, the material probably is too difficult for them to understand even with teacher assistance. The committee or classroom teachers should locate other materials that the students can comprehend. Otherwise, the frustration level of the students will be so severe that problems will result.

The modified Cloze Test is more accurate than any of the common readability formulas, many of which have severe disadvantages when applied to social studies materials. Often they do not detect a difficult conceptual load or they exact penalties for social studies vocabulary. Before selection of any materials to be used by the majority of the student population, a modified Cloze Test should be done.

Selection of nonprint materials

Nonprint materials are increasingly important in social studies instruction, yet they are often selected with little prior appraisal of their utility. The social studies committee should select the filmstrips, tapes, films, records, computer games, artifacts, and other nonprint materials as carefully as they select textbooks and other printed aids. Their analysis for sexual stereotyping, ethnic stereotyping and treatment of the handicapped is just as important as for print materials.

Evaluations of nonprint materials are available from many sources. Professional journals usually include comments from teachers about materials recently released. Librarians can provide valuable information. The regional service centers also will have publications available that assess nonprint materials, particularly films, filmstrips and other media.

Often, nonprint materials are previewed by committees before adoption. When materials are being examined, they should be judged by the same criteria that the committee has selected for print materials. Some, of course, may not apply. The committee may wish to consider the following points about nonprint materials under examination. Nonprint materials should

- be clear and easy for pupils to comprehend;
- provide information best presented in this format;
- allow students with differing learning styles to use them readily;
- justify the greater cost;
- provide unique learning opportunities;
- show no evidence of bias;
- be easy to use, and
- involve the students more than a text can do.

For checklists that can be applied to nonprint materials, see *A Guide to Curriculum Development: Purposes, Practices and Procedures.*

Summary

The social studies committee must select print and nonprint materials that are appropriate for the curriculum. They must consider the selected goals and objectives, the included content, the designed scope and sequence, and the designated instructional techniques. The committee must examine the materials carefully to select those most appropriate for student needs, most cost-effective for district financial resources, and most supportive of teachers. The committee should designate both basic and supplementary materials that can be used to adjust the curriculum for individual differences. Then, the committee must plan how the materials will be obtained in sufficient time to allow teachers ample opportunity for familiarization prior to use.

Evaluation 8

Planning for evaluation is one of the most important aspects of social studies curriculum development. The curriculum committee has two major responsibilities: to create measures that evaluate how well students are meeting program objectives and to determine means for evaluating the curriculum's effectiveness. Without the evaluation component, the curriculum development process is incomplete.

The committee must provide methods of evaluating how well each knowledge, skill, value or social participation goal has been met. It must include evaluation methods that are appropriate for students of differing abilities and learning styles. The instruments should not be left to chance.

Once a new program has been written, a regular means of assessing its effectiveness should be built into the program. This is a major responsibility of the curriculum committee. Continuous program evaluation allows for curriculum changes that respond to new facts, world situations and student populations.

Definition of evaluation

Evaluation has been defined as a means of gathering information in order to help make appropriate decisions. The evaluation process requires its performers to:

- determine what goals it wishes to achieve by evaluation;
- select appropriate instruments to evaluate these goals;
- apply the instruments to selected populations in order to gather data, and
- evaluate data gathered in order to make a decision.

The following chart indicates some of the purposes of social studies curriculum evaluation and the persons who seek the data.

Purpose	Evaluators
To determine program effectiveness	Curriculum leaders, classroom teachers
To determine needs of community	Curriculum leaders, social studies committee
To determine appropriateness of materials	Social studies committee, teachers, students, parents
To determine effectiveness of pilot programs	Social studies committee, outside evaluators
To determine performance of students daily, weekly and long-term	Classroom teachers, curriculum leaders, school administrators
To determine student achievement in relationship to other students statewide and nationally	School administrators, State Department of Education

The multiple goals of evaluation require a variety of instruments to meet these demands. For some purposes, locally devised instruments will suffice. They can be used for evaluating program effectiveness, for needs assessment, for determining materials appropriateness, and for evaluating short-term student achievement. For other purposes, standardized instruments may be more appropriate. These goals might be evaluating program effectiveness, long-term student achievement, and comparison of students to statewide or national norms. National survey instruments are available for evaluating affective goals, materials and program effectiveness.

Evaluation and testing

An important distinction needs to be made between the process of evaluation and the subprocess of testing; they are often confused. Evaluation is an examination of all needed data to make a decision and is a description of the entire assessment

process. Testing is one way in which needed data are collected. In most classrooms, social studies teachers test students to assess how well they are performing in relationship to the program's stated objectives. Testing allows for measurement of achievement or for pre-assessment prior to beginning instructional sequences. As a result of a community's desire to compare its students with others, teachers often administer standardized tests. In social studies, however, it is very difficult to find standardized tests that accurately reflect student achievement. Social studies programs and objectives vary so widely from district to district throughout the nation that it is virtually impossible to construct a single test that is valid for all students. In choosing a standardized test, therefore, committees must be sure that it evaluates what actually is taught within the district.

Testing occurs regularly in most districts. Evaluation, or the use of the results of tests as well as other data in decision making, does not. The social studies committee needs to distinguish clearly between the testing function and the evaluation function and how each will be performed. This chapter explores various means of collecting data for evaluation including some common forms of testing.

Objective and essay testing

Originally, objective and essay tests were the major methods of gathering information to assess student achievement, but today, there are additional measures available. Interviews, surveys, discussions, presentations of a product, observation scales and other methods can be used. No longer are knowledge and skills the only aspects of learning assessed. While facts and the skills necessary to use them are important, today's teachers also are concerned with students' conceptual development, decision-making skills, values and attitudes, and ability to be active community participants. These aspects cannot always be tested with traditional methods.

Objective tests maintain a significant place in testing students. Traditional true/false, multiple choice, completion and matching tests are used to assess student comprehension of facts and ideas. Items should be constructed carefully in order to assess how well students are meeting the course's listed objectives. Tests constructed to demonstrate how well students are achieving objectives including a set standard are called criterion-referenced measures. They provide excellent feedback for students, teachers, parents and administrators if properly constructed. Objective tests are easy to correct, easy to administer, and timesaving; therefore, they are often overused.

Objective testing also can be used in new ways. For example, social studies instruction frequently is structured around concepts. Objective test items can be constructed to determine the level of students' conceptual development.

- Given the name of a concept, the student can select examples of it.
- Given the name of a concept, the student can select nonexamples of it.
- Given an example of a concept, the student can select its name.
- Given the name of an attribute of a concept, the student can select examples of that attribute.

- Given an example of an attribute of a concept, the student can select the name of the attribute.
- Given a concept, the student can select a relevant attribute.
- Given a concept, the student can select an irrelevant attribute.
- Given the definition of a concept, the student can select its name.
- Given the concept, the student can select its definition.
- Given two concepts, the student can select the relationship between them.[30]

This schema shows increasing complexity of conceptual development ending with the stage of making generalizations.

Essay testing long has been used to evaluate how well students understand relationships within the social studies content. Essays also provide a way to assess student use of basic communication skills. Today, evaluating conceptual development, values and attitudes, and decision-making skills can be part of the essay testing program. In constructing essay tests, social studies teachers again must clarify what objectives will be met by essay responses and how objectively these answers can be assessed. Essay tests are time-consuming, both to take and to correct, and therefore, have not always appeared in classrooms as often as they should.

There are resources available to provide assistance in test item construction. Among them are the publications of the National Council for the Social Studies which include both objective and essay items for United States history, world history and critical thinking skills. Publishers often provide tests to be used in conjunction with their programs, and some national and state assessment items are available.

Evaluation flexibility

An important aspect of evaluation is the consideration of alternative ways to assess objectives. Not all students' learning styles result in good responses on objective or essay tests. Some have learning or language handicaps that require test modifications. This can be as simple as allowing a student to respond orally into a tape recorder or having test questions read to nonreaders. In the primary grades, oral reading of questions eliminates the reading variable. Modifications can be more complex such as a set of alternatives from which students or teachers may choose. For example, students may be asked to demonstrate their mastery of an objective by taking a written test, by completing an essay, by producing a product, by role playing, or by speaking out in a discussion. Flexibility in evaluation helps social studies students feel that they have some control and choice in assessment. An example of this flexibility from a high school course on the Soviet Union appears below.

Objective: To identify the chief characteristics of culture in the rural and urban areas of the Soviet Union.

Evaluation:
1. Pretend you are a magazine writer. Prepare an article titled: "Contrasting Lifestyles—the Rural and Urban Soviet Citizen." Or be the staff artist and prepare a series of sketches on the topic.
2. Make a chart on rural and urban life in the Soviet Union.

Include comparisons of such aspects as: food, housing, clothing, stores, education, transportation, communication, work, religion, culture, recreation.
3. Discuss: What are the most significant aspects of culture in any society? How does rural life in the Soviet Union illustrate these attributes? How does urban life do so? Compare the two.
4. Work with a small group and prepare a mural which illustrates the key characteristics of life in the urban and rural areas of the Soviet Union.
5. Working with a small group, prepare a role play that illustrates life in the rural and urban areas of the Soviet Union.

This plan allows students to choose from among assessment alternatives the one best suited to their interests. A teacher-prepared objective test could be another option.

Individual differences

Another evaluation consideration is student differences. One distinction needs to be made between elementary and secondary students. Another is between students of varying abilities or students with special needs.

Assessment of primary children's achievement should be structured differently from that of older students. These children should have tests that are primarily pictorial or graphic in nature. Questions should be read or taped to eliminate any reading difficulty. Observational methods often are more appropriate than the typical paper-and-pencil tests. In assessing social studies throughout school, teachers and curriculum developers should be very careful not to make the instruments tests of reading skills. As children progress in language abilities, more formal tests can be given. Secondary school students can use both objective and essay testing and other forms of assessment.

Curriculum developers should consider how teachers at all levels will assess students with limited academic abilities or with special needs. Visual tests including pictures or other graphics, observation scales and checklists and tape-recorded tests are some options. Conceptual level testing as well as factual testing should be done. Adjustments in the testing structure for students with special language needs will develop more accurate social studies achievement results. The key factor in developing an evaluation plan for these children should be how to determine what they know in social studies without allowing their skills or needs to handicap their performance in any way.

Short-term and long-term evaluation

Social studies evaluation occurs both in the short term and the long term. In the short term, teacher-devised instruments are used most frequently. They can reflect accurately the current learning objectives. They may be supplemented by published tests when these match closely the program's stated objectives. In the long term, secondary students' achievement often is evaluated with formal examinations. These are either teacher-prepared or publisher-developed. In some

cases such as United States history or government, standardized tests are used. Students at both elementary and secondary levels frequently take achievement tests as part of the school's overall evaluation program.

The use of standardized tests to examine student achievement and to evaluate program effectiveness needs to be considered carefully. In social studies, these tests usually explore such skills as map and globe skills and reference skills. They do not test effectively conceptual development or the content of local social studies programs. The wide variance in local curricula makes this impossible. Often, using the social studies subtest of a standardized achievement test battery wastes district's funds. Careful examination usually reveals little or no correlation between what is being tested and what is being taught. Therefore, the resultant comparisons do not determine how well students perform in terms of a national standard.

There are other forms of long-term evaluation. The Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress (CAEP) is used to assess the citizenship and social studies skills of a selected population at specific grade levels. Likewise, this measure can provide longitudinal data on social studies achievement. This is a criterion-referenced measure in which students are expected to achieve at a certain level for each objective. The objectives tested are designated specifically for Connecticut.

Program evaluation

One of the critical aspects of evaluation is the feedback it provides curriculum developers. Student achievement data that are consistently low may mean that curriculum revision is in order. Criterion-referenced measures, if used, can pinpoint precise areas of need. Standardized test information can point out problems, particularly in the basic skills. Curriculum developers, however, must seek specific information that goes beyond these measures.

There are many ways to gather data. Needs assessment, informal discussions, tabulation of achievement results, specific materials evaluation instruments, and carefully developed effectiveness measures of pilot testing are all possibilities. The curriculum committee should build into the program a monitoring system for feedback on its successes or failures.

As information is collected from many sources, the persons charged with curriculum responsibility can translate the data into curriculum revision and new design. The social studies curriculum should be responsive to feedback and change as the need for change is demonstrated through assessment results.

One way in which a committee might look at their data for interpretation is through the lens of Connecticut's *Comprehensive Plan for Elementary and Secondary Education*. The five goals and the questions that the committee might ask to evaluate their program are:

Motivation to learn. To realize their potential to learn, students must be highly motivated.

- Do students show interest in the social studies?
- Do students elect to take social studies courses?
- Do teachers report motivation in class?
- Are students doing as well in social studies as in other subjects?
- Do students seem to have positive feelings about themselves?
- Does the social studies curriculum address itself to the problems of motivation?
- Does the social studies curriculum provide opportunities for each student to develop to the fullest her or his potential?
- Does the social studies curriculum assist students in developing better self-concepts?

Mastery of the basic skills. Proficiency in the basic skills is essential for acquiring knowledge and for success in our society.

- Does the social studies program require students to demonstrate skill in reading, writing, speech and decision making?
- Are students in social studies using skills successfully?
- Are social studies basic map and globe skills being taught and acquired?
- Are students who are having difficulty being helped to acquire basic skills through the social studies program?

Acquisition of knowledge. Acquiring knowledge leads to fuller realization of individual potential and contributes to responsible citizenship.

- Are students acquiring knowledge about all of the social sciences?
- Are students learning about the duties, rights and responsibilities of citizenship?
- Are students having difficulty receiving help in acquiring social studies knowledge?
- Are students learning about many other cultures and how cultures are interdependent?
- Are students using their knowledge to understand their own lives and conditions better?

Competence in life skills. Students are challenged to function successfully in multiple roles: as citizens, family members, parents, producers and consumers.

- Does the social studies program provide an understanding of these roles?
- Are students demonstrating their willingness to participate actively in their community?
- Are opportunities being provided for students to develop interpersonal skills that are needed in future life?
- Are students who have difficulty with any of these roles being helped in some way to achieve a more satisfactory comprehension and skill?

Understanding society's values. To be responsible citizens and contribute to positive change, students must understand and respect the underlying values of this society.

- Are students learning the nature of diversity and the strength of a pluralistic society?
- Are students exploring the reasons for laws and why they provide order?
- Does the social studies program explore the values that are traditional in this society?
- Does the social studies program help instill a respect for the environment?
- Do students respect both their commonality and their diversity?
- Do students act upon these values?

The responses can help a committee focus on both the strengths and weaknesses of the program. The state goals provide one more evaluation tool.

Summary

Evaluation serves two major purposes for the social studies curriculum. It examines student achievement at many levels, providing feedback to students, teachers, parents and curriculum developers. It explores program effectiveness continuously, demonstrating areas of need and suggesting appropriate revision. It is not a single-faceted approach, but must reflect many alternatives. The social studies committee must build an effective evaluation plan into its curriculum.

9 Implementation of the Guide

The curriculum development process has been long and arduous. Knowledge, skill, value and social participation objectives have been specified. Content samples have been designated, materials have been selected, instructional techniques have been decided and evaluation plans have been made. Implementation is at hand, and the knowledgeable developer knows that the task has just begun. Transforming a written document into effective classroom instruction is a challenging task.

Implementation has several phases, the first of which may be piloting the guide to determine how it works on a limited basis. Others include the essential staff orientation, the needed special materials, the crucial support services, the

necessary staff development activities, and the continuous review and revision process. Implementation is never ending.

Piloting

A limited use of the new social studies guide may be the first step in implementation. One elementary school's teachers may use the guide for the first year. This allows the writers to examine the fully functioning program. If it is a large school, only one teacher at each grade level may be asked to try the new program. Likewise, new secondary courses can be piloted with a single class.

Piloting must be monitored carefully. The pilot teachers need the same services that full implementation requires. They must participate in program orientation, becoming aware not only of their own program but also of how it fits into the K–12 sequence. They also must have appropriate materials, both student and professional. They must have the support of either committee members or a district curriculum specialist. They should receive any necessary training, including opportunities to observe how materials are used in other districts. Finally, they must participate in a careful evaluation of the pilot. The pilot testing of the curriculum guide often leads to some revisions prior to district-wide implementation.

There are a few points that should be kept in mind before universal use of the guide. Implementation should be planned so that a teacher

- implements no more than one new program each year;
- is not asked to implement a program unless the required materials are available;
- is not asked to teach a new program without some orientation and awareness of the program's place in the overall curriculum;
- is not expected to teach a new course outline unless someone can respond to questions;
- can attend staff development sessions that present new techniques, difficult materials or background information, and
- feels free to suggest program improvements.

Staff orientation

Planning for staff orientation can be a significant factor in the program's success. If lines of communication have been maintained throughout the development process, teachers will be expecting change. Course outlines and materials should be available, and orientation should occur prior to new program implementation. The scope of the orientation depends on curriculum difficulty, on the amount of change, and on the quality of previous staff communication.

The developers planning for orientation should be sure that they have:

- prepared outlines for each teacher at each grade level;
- provided teachers' guides and other materials;

- developed the K–12 sequence;
- planned to highlight the changes and the reasons for them;
- planned for a large group introduction of the K–12 program followed by a small group examination at each grade level;
- prepared materials that explain available support services, planned in-service training and expected teacher evaluation, and
- planned an administrative orientation before the teacher orientation.

Special materials

Implementation may require special materials. If new instructional techniques are being introduced, a first step may be selection and purchase of videotapes, cassettes, programmed instruction or other teaching materials. Books such as those providing background information in a field not previously taught (e.g., anthropology) or those providing training materials may be added to the professional library. Films may be obtained for use as part of the administrative and teacher orientation. If computer instruction is being introduced, appropriate teaching materials may be necessary. The committee should evaluate the implementation plan and identify any resources required.

Support services

Support services are absolutely essential for successful curriculum implementation. Small school districts usually use the curriculum committee members to respond to questions. They may be assisted by principals who have been alerted to possible problems. Larger school districts may have a curriculum consultant who is available for demonstrations, for questions and for other assistance.

Support services can come from sources outside the school, such as community members who serve as resources on specific topics or regional service centers which loan materials or provide personnel (see Appendix C). Meetings of state, regional and national organizations often include sessions that are directly related to new curriculum topics. The committee should identify in the guide some of the possible support services. For information on additional resources, see Appendix D.

Staff development

The kinds of staff development provided often spell the difference between success and failure. Extensive in-service programs allow teachers to experience what they are being asked to teach. Program planners should consider:

- the teachers' experience with similar curricula
- the teachers' background knowledge
- the familiarity of the instructional techniques
- the commonality of the evaluation instruments
- the time available
- the leadership available

- the information needed to make adjustments for students with special needs
- the degree to which participants will use the materials in the same ways as the students will
- the necessity for staff development after the first implementation year (e.g., for new teachers, for teachers transferred to new grade levels)

The following staff development models are examples of how the committee might structure what is planned.

Model A: Minimum

- Scheduling—four sessions, two to three hours each: before implementation, at first quarter's end, at first semester's end, at first year's end.
- Program—first session
  - K–12 scope and sequence
  - program components
  - unit structure, illustrating content, techniques, materials
  - lesson structure, illustrating objectives, techniques, parts
  - evaluation, short- and long-term
  - summary and questions
- Program—follow-through sessions
  - single topic discussion
  - mutual success and failure discussion
  - evaluation including suggestions for change
  - summary and suggestions for future sessions

Model B: Moderate

- Scheduling—six sessions, two to three hours each: three before implementation, one each at first quarter's end, at first semester's end and at first year's end
- Program—introductory sessions
  - K–12 scope and sequence
  - program components
  - unit structure
  - instructional techniques (e.g., inquiry)
  - evaluation techniques (e.g., interviewing)
  - lesson structure
  - demonstrations of techniques by participants
  - summary and questions
- Program—follow-through sessions
  - upcoming units
  - evaluation methods review
  - single topic discussion
  - mutual success and failure discussion
  - evaluation including suggestions for change
  - ways of using local resources
  - summary and suggestions for future sessions

Model C: In-depth

- Scheduling—course for a minimum of 10 two-hour sessions, two before implementation, plus two follow-through sessions at each semester's end
- Program—course
  - Session 1: scope and sequence, program components, unit structure, a look at unit one
  - Session 2: introduction to instructional techniques, lesson format, questions
  - Session 3: conceptual development and microteaching
  - Session 4: generalizing and microteaching
  - Session 5: decision making, inquiry and microteaching
  - Session 6: valuing including microteaching
  - Session 7: skills development including microteaching
  - Session 8: role playing and simulation
  - Session 9: matching student needs and activities
  - Session 10: evaluating student progress
- Program—follow-through sessions
  - shared concerns
  - specific topic discussion
  - program adaptation for students of special need
  - ways of using local resources
  - evaluation and revision

Review and revision

Implementation is not the final step in the curriculum development process. As a result of implementing the new social studies curriculum guide, the district will accumulate information about its effectiveness. Regardless of how well the guide looked when planned, in reality there will inevitably be some problems with it. These require review of what is written and revision to correct what is ineffective. Therefore, social studies curriculum development ends as it began—a circular and continuous process, with the curriculum changing periodically to meet the needs of the district, its teachers and its students, as they prepare for citizenship in the world of the future.

Appendix A
Statewide Goals for Education

From Connecticut's *Comprehensive Plan for Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980–1985.*

GOAL ONE

Motivation to Learn

To realize their potential to learn, students must be highly motivated.

Therefore:

Connecticut public school students will develop strong motivation by responding to the high expectations of their parents, teachers and school administrators; by understanding and striving to fulfill personal aspirations; and by developing the positive feelings of self worth which contribute to responsible behavior and personal growth, health and safety.

GOAL TWO

Mastery of the Basic Skills

Proficiency in the basic skills is essential for acquiring knowledge and for success in our society.

Therefore:

Connecticut public school students will, to their full potential, learn to communicate effectively in speech and writing; read with understanding; acquire knowledge of and ability in mathematics; and strengthen decision-making skills.

Appendix A (continued)

GOAL THREE

Acquisition of Knowledge

Acquiring knowledge leads to fuller realization of individual potential and contributes to responsible citizenship.

Therefore:

Connecticut public school students will acquire the knowledge of science, mathematics, social studies, the arts, literature and languages which leads to an understanding and appreciation of the values and the intellectual and artistic achievements of their culture and other cultures; and will take full advantage of opportunities to explore, develop and express their own uniqueness and creativity.

GOAL FOUR

Competence in Life Skills

Students are challenged to function successfully in multiple roles: as citizens, family members, parents, producers and consumers.

Therefore:

Connecticut public school students who complete secondary level studies will have the ability to make informed career choices; understand the responsibilities of family membership and parenthood; be prepared to undertake the responsibilities of citizenship in their communities, in the state, in the nation and in the world; and have the skills, knowledge and competence required for success in meaningful employment, or be qualified to enter postsecondary education.

GOAL FIVE

Understanding Society's Values

To be responsible citizens and contribute to positive change, students must understand and respect the underlying values of this society.

Therefore:

Connecticut public school students will appreciate diversity and understand the inherent strengths in a pluralistic society; they will understand and respond to the vital need for order under law; they will acquire the knowledge necessary to live in harmony with the environment, and actively practice conservation of natural resources, and they will respect the humanity they share with other people.

Appendix B
Legislation

The series of guides to curriculum development published in 1981 by the State of Connecticut Board of Education is consistent with the provisions of Sections 10-4 and 10-16b (or P.A. 79-128) of the Connecticut General Statutes.

Section 10-4. Duties of Board. (a) . . . shall prepare such courses of study and publish such curriculum guides . . . as it determines are necessary to assist school districts to carry out the duties prescribed by law . . . .

Section 10-16b. Prescribed courses of study. (a) In the public schools the program of instruction offered shall include at least the following subject matter, as taught by legally qualified teachers: the arts; career education; consumer education; health and safety; language arts, including reading, writing, grammar, speaking and spelling; mathematics; physical education; science; social studies, including, but not limited to, citizenship, economics, geography, government and history; and in addition, on at least the secondary level, one or more foreign languages and vocational education.

(b) Each local and regional board of education shall on September 1, 1982, and annually thereafter at such time and in such manner as the commissioner of education shall request, attest to the state board of education that such local or regional board of education offers at least the program of instruction required pursuant to this section, and that such program of instruction is planned, ongoing and systematic.

(c) The state board of education shall make available curriculum materials and such other materials as may assist local and regional boards of education in developing instructional programs pursuant to this section.

Section 10-18. Courses in United States history, government and duties and responsibilities of citizenship. (a) All high, preparatory, secondary and elementary schools, public and private, whose property is exempt from taxation, shall provide a program of United States history, including instruction in United States government at all levels, and in the duties, responsibilities, and rights of United States citizenship. No student shall be graduated from any such school who has not been found to be familiar with said subjects.

(b) The state board of education shall, upon request by a board of education make samples of materials available for use in the schools required to teach the courses provided for in this section, with supplementary materials for such use.

(c) Each local or regional board of education and the board of trustees, board of governors or other regulatory body of each such public or private school shall file with the commissioner of education a copy of such courses in United States history, government, and citizenship, and annually, on or before August first, shall file any modifications or adjustments in such courses of study with said commissioner.

Section 10-18a. Contents of textbooks and other general instructional materials. Except where a legitimate educational purpose will otherwise be served, each local or regional board of education shall, in selecting textbooks and other general instructional materials select those which accurately present the achievements and accomplishments of individuals and groups from all ethnic and racial backgrounds and of both sexes. Nothing herein shall preclude the use of instructional material and teaching which emphasizes the traditional family structure.

Appendix C
Regional Educational Service Centers

Area Cooperative Education Services (ACES)
800 Dixwell Avenue
New Haven, CT 06511

Capitol Regional Education Council (CREC)
212 King Philip Drive
West Hartford, CT 06117

Cooperative Educational Services (CES)
11 Allen Road
Norwalk, CT 06852

Eastern Connecticut Regional Educational Service Center (EASTCONN)
R.R. 2
Willimantic, CT 06226

Long-Range Educational Assistance for Regional Needs (LEARN)
P.O. Box 220
East Lyme, CT 06333

Regional Educational Services Concept through United Effort (RESCUE)
R.R. 2, Goshen Road
Litchfield, CT 06759

Appendix D
Resources for Social Studies Education

This list contains the names and addresses of national and state organizations and agencies which can provide information and assistance to curriculum developers and teachers of social studies. A brief description of the type of help available accompanies most entries.

Among the in-state resources listed are libraries whose collections are particularly useful in social studies education and some sources of information about museums and historic sites. A list of more than 30 museums and 80 historic sites, listed by town and historic period, can be obtained from the Consultant in Social Studies, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 2219, Hartford, CT 06115. Addresses of the regional educational service centers in Connecticut, which can provide information about materials, consulting and other services, appear in Appendix C.

National Organizations and Professional Associations

African-American Institute
School Services Division
833 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

Serves school districts, schools and teachers by providing publications about Africa including teachers' guides, elementary-secondary-college packets, resource packets and minimodules.

American Anthropological Association
1703 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20009

American Economic Association
1313 21st Avenue, South
Nashville, TN 37212

American Historical Association
400 A Street, SE
Washington, DC 20003

American Newspaper Publishers Association Foundation
P.O. Box 17407
Dulles International Airport
Washington, DC 20041

Publishes a bibliography on resources for utilizing newspapers creatively in the classroom.

American Political Science Association
1527 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036

American Psychological Association
1200 17th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

American Sociological Association
1772 N Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
315 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10016

Publishes the *ADL Bulletin* and materials on contemporary problems that focus on how to achieve justice for all Americans.

The Asia Society
725 Park Avenue at 70th
New York, NY 10021

The Educational Resources division focuses on improving instruction about Asia and publishes bibliographic essays, translations from Asia literature adapted for classroom use, and curriculum guides.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandria, VA 22314

Produces yearbooks, bulletins and other materials about all phases of curriculum development, most of it applicable to social studies.

Center for Global Perspectives
218 East 18th Street
New York, NY 10003

Focuses on fusing global perspectives into the K–12 curriculum and publishes *Intercom*, a quarterly that can be used as a miniunit or to supplement the curriculum.

Center for Teaching About China
407 South Dearborn, Suite 945
Chicago, IL 60605

Provides a variety of materials, print and nonprint, for use in teaching students at all levels about China and maintains a film rental library.

Center for Teaching International Relations
University of Denver
Denver, CO 80208

Produces a variety of instructional materials to complement the social studies curriculum at many levels.

Council on Interracial Books for Children, Inc.
1841 Broadway
New York, NY 10023

Has developed materials for evaluating textbooks and trade books on the basis of racism and sexism.

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education
(ERIC/ChESS)
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

This is one of 16 clearinghouses which comprise the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) network. It focuses on many social studies/social science related topics including curriculum grades, teaching units, games, descriptions of innovative programs, bibliographies and research reports.

Foreign Policy Association
345 East 45th Street
New York, NY 10017

Offers teacher resources and suggestions for classroom activities on major foreign policy issues.

Appendix D (continued)

Joint Council on Economic Education
1212 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036

Many publications which contain specific activities, K–12.

League of Women Voters of the United States
1730 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

Publications useful for classroom citizenship activities available at cost.

Mershon Center
Ohio State University
199 West Tenth Avenue
Columbus, OH 43201

A research center that sponsors the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project.

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
1790 Broadway
New York, NY 10019

NAACP departments work to achieve equal citizenship rights for all American citizens and have materials available.

National Council for the Social Studies
3615 Wisconsin Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20016

Major professional organization for social studies educators. Publishes journal, *Social Education*, topical bulletins, position statements and a "How To Do It" series.

Population Institute
110 Maryland Avenue, NE
Washington, DC 20036

Offers a variety of publications for infusing population education into existing curricula including content outlines, curriculum guides and a bimonthly newsletter.

Prime Time School Television
120 South LaSalle Street
Chicago, IL 60603

Members receive study guides on forthcoming television programs that help teachers enhance social studies classes.

Social Science Education Consortium
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

Publishes the *Data Book* which annually reviews curriculum materials and many other publications addressing major topics of interest to social studies teachers.

Social Studies Development Center
513 North Park, Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47405

Publishes free *News and Notes on the Social Sciences* containing activity ideas as well as resources on timely issues.

Social Studies School Service
10,000 Culver Boulevard
Culver City, CA 90230

Free catalogs, grades 4–8 and 7–12, list information and prices about social studies print and nonprint materials, many of which are from obscure sources.

Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship
American Bar Association
1155 East 60th Street
Chicago, IL 60637

National clearinghouse for law-related education with many publications including a magazine, annotated bibliographies and a media guide.

Teachers Guides to Television
699 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10021

Produces study guides on upcoming television programs that teach students selective viewing skills and constructive television use. Members receive discussion guides, activity sheets, and have access to training materials.

U.S. Committee for UNICEF
331 East 38th Street
New York, NY 10016

Varied resources include brochures, booklets, project kits, miniunits and media materials for a variety of age groups focusing on children's lives in many cultures.

State Resources

Associations and Organizations

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
1162 Chapel Street
New Haven, CT 06520

Has print and nonprint materials on the culture of many American minority groups.

Center for Economic Education
University of Connecticut
Box U-55
Storrs, CT 06268

Center for Economic Education
University of Connecticut at Stamford
Scofieldtown Road
Stamford, CT 06903

Center for Economic Education
Central Connecticut State College
Marcus White Hall–Room 117
New Britain, CT 06050

Center for Economic Education
Southern Connecticut State College
501 Crescent Street
New Haven, CT 06515

Centers affiliated with national and state councils on economic education provide workshops, courses and technical assistance for teachers.

Concilium on International and Area Studies
Yale University
Outreach Program
New Haven, CT 06520

Concilium outreach provided in these areas: Africa, Eastern Asia, Latin America, Russia, and Eastern Europe, Southeast Asia, Western Europe, South Africa, and the Middle East. Opportunities for special language instruction, museum activities, films and artistic performances included.

Connecticut Afro-American Historical Society
444 Orchard Street
New Haven, CT 06511

Serves as a library resource and a museum for research on the Black Heritage or the Black Experience in Connecticut and the nation.

Connecticut Council for the Social Studies
Box 107
Greens Farms, CT 06436

Provides programs and services, conducts workshops and conferences, and publishes a newsletter and journal.

Appendix D (continued)

Connecticut Humanities Council
195 Church Street, Wesleyan Station
Middletown, CT 06457

Offers grants to projects which incorporate the humanities and demonstrate cooperative arrangements between schools and other cultural and educational institutions.

The I.N. Thut World Education Center
University of Connecticut
School of Education
Box U-32
Storrs, CT 06268

Provides a wide variety of resources in the areas of multicultural, international and global education including colloquia, publications, courses and seminars.

Women's Studies Program
University of Connecticut
Storrs, CT 06268

Sponsors colloquia on the status of women and serves as a resource center.

World Affairs Center, Inc.
1380 Asylum Avenue
Hartford, CT 06105

Sponsors programs on international affairs, model United Nations for secondary schools and special lectures.

Libraries

Many university and college libraries have information for social studies teachers about textbooks, print and nonprint materials, equipment and technology. Usually, these libraries have the publications of the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Social Science Educational Consortium (SSEC) and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) along with other books of importance to social studies educators.

The Connecticut Humanities Resource Center provides easy access to humanities program materials. Audiotapes, videotapes, films, reports and booklets which have been created through their projects are available on request. For a free catalog, write to:

Connecticut Humanities Resource Center
Buley Library
Southern Connecticut State College
New Haven, CT 06515

Most local public libraries do not have large collections of professional books, but they may be able to obtain desired resources through the State Library System Inter-loan Service. A local library card can be used in most public libraries in the state.

The State Department of Education also maintains the following libraries and resource centers:

Migratory Resource Center
ACES
1450 Whitney Avenue
Hamden, CT 06517

Special Education Resource Center
275 Windsor Street
Hartford, CT 06120

State Bilingual Resource Center
Hamden-New Haven Co-op
1450 Whitney Avenue
Hamden, CT 06517

State Bilingual Resource Center
110 Washington Street
Hartford, CT 06106

Museums

Information on museums and historic sites in Connecticut can be obtained from:

Antiquarian and Landmarks Society
of Connecticut
394 Main Street
Hartford, CT 06103

Connecticut Commission on the Arts
340 Capitol Avenue
Hartford, CT 06115

Connecticut Historical Commission
39 South Prospect Street
Hartford, CT 06106

Connecticut Historical Society
1 Elizabeth Street
Hartford, CT 06105

New Haven Colony Historical Society
114 Whitney Avenue
New Haven, CT 06510

Connecticut State Library
231 Capitol Avenue
Hartford, CT 06115

Appendix E
Teaching About Controversial Issues

Policy Statements from the Connecticut State Board of Education

Controversial Issues

Learning to deal with controversial issues is one of the basic competencies all students should acquire. Controversial issues are those problems, subjects or questions about which there are significant differences of opinion based for the most part on the differences in the values people bring to the appraisal of the facts of the issue.

Controversy is inherent in the democratic way of life. The study and discussion of controversial issues is essential to the education for citizenship in a free society. Students can become informed individuals only through the process of examining evidence, facts and differing viewpoints, by exercising freedom of thought and moral choice, and by making responsible decisions. The perpetuation of the fundamental principles of our society requires the guarantee that there be opportunity for students to read, to gather information, to speak and to hear alternative viewpoints, and to reach honest judgments according to their individual ability.

In order for students to learn these competencies, teachers must be free to help students to identify and evaluate relevant information, to learn the techniques of critical analysis, and to make independent judgments. They must reinforce the students' right to present and support their conclusions before persons who have opposing points of view. Teachers should also endeavor to develop a flexibility of viewpoint in students so that they are able to recognize the need for continuous and objective reexamination of issues in the light of changing conditions in society and as new and significant evidence becomes available to support a change in point of view. Further, teachers should direct the attention of learners, at the appropriate levels of maturity, to significant issues and to promote a lively exchange of ideas about them. Although teachers have the right to express their own viewpoints and opinions, they do not have the right to indoctrinate students with their personal views.

It is recommended that all Connecticut Boards of Education develop and disseminate a written policy which supports the concept of Teaching About Controversial Issues.

Adopted by State Board of Education
October 4, 1978

Academic Freedom and Public Education

Academic freedom is the freedom to teach and to learn. In defending the freedom to teach and to learn, we affirm the democratic process itself. American public education is the source of much that is essential to our democratic heritage. No other single institution has so significantly sustained our national diversity, nor helped voice our shared hopes for an open and tolerant society. Academic freedom is among the strengths of American public education. Attempts to deny the freedom to teach and to learn are, therefore, incompatible with the goals of excellence and equity in the life of our public schools.

With freedom comes responsibility. With rights come obligations. Accordingly, academic freedom in our public schools is subject to certain limitations. Therefore, the STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION affirms that:

Academic freedom in our public schools is properly defined within the context of law and the constraints of mutual respect among individuals. Public schools represent a public trust. They exist to prepare our children to become partners in a society of self-governing citizens. Therefore, access to ideas and opportunities to consider the broad range of questions and experiences which constitute the proper preparation for a life of responsible citizenship must not be defined by the interests of any single viewpoint. Teachers, school administrators, librarians, and school media specialists must be free to select instructional and research materials appropriate to the maturity level of their students. This freedom is itself subject to the reasonable restrictions mandated by law to school officials and administrators. At the same time, local school officials must demonstrate substantial or legitimate public interest in order to justify censorship or other proposed restrictions upon teaching and learning. Similarly, local boards of education cannot establish criteria for the selection of library books based solely on the personal, social or political beliefs of school board members. While students must be free to voice their opinions in the context of a free inquiry after truth and respect for their fellow students and school personnel, student expression which threatens to interfere substantially with the school's function is not warranted by academic freedom. Students must be mindful that their rights are neither absolute nor unlimited. Part of responsible citizenship is coming to accept the consequences of the freedoms to which one is entitled by law and tradition. Similarly, parents have the right to affect their own children's education, but this right must be balanced against the right other parents' children have to a suitable range of educational experiences. Throughout, the tenets of academic freedom seek to encourage a spirit of reasoned community participation in the life and practices of our public schools.

Since teaching and learning are among the missions of our public schools, the STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION affirms the distinction between teaching and indoctrination. Schools should teach students how to think, not what to think. To study an idea is not necessarily to endorse an idea. Public school classrooms are forums for inquiry, not arenas for the promulgation of particular viewpoints. While communities have the right to exercise supervision over their own public school practices and programs, their participation in the educational life of their schools should respect the constitutional and intellectual rights guaranteed school personnel and students by American law and tradition.

Appendix E (continued)

Accordingly, the STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, in order to encourage improved educational practices, recommends that local school boards adopt policies and procedures to receive, review, and take action upon requests that question public school practices and programs. Community members should be encouraged, and made aware of their rights to voice their opinions about school practices and programs in an appropriate administrative forum. The STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION further recommends that local school boards take steps to encourage informed community participation in the shared work of sustaining and improving our public schools.

Finally, the STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION affirms that community members and school personnel should acknowledge together that the purpose of public education is the pursuit of knowledge and the preparation of our children for responsible citizenship in a society that respects differences and shared freedom.

Adopted by State Board of Education
September 9, 1981

Appendix F
Freedom to Learn and Freedom to Teach

A statement by the National Council for the Social Studies

(The original of this statement appeared in the May 1953 issue of *Social Education*.)

The National Council for the Social Studies again affirms its devotion to the fundamental principles of American democracy. As teachers and as loyal Americans, we shall continue, both within and without the classroom, to oppose totalitarianism whether it takes the form of communism, fascism, attack on religious or ethnic minorities, or attack upon freedom of the mind. When democracy is endangered, we believe there is only one side on which we can take our stand—the side of freedom.

Democracy is a way of life that prizes alternatives. Alternatives mean that people must make choices. Wisdom with which to make choices can come only if there are freedoms of speech, of press, of assembly, and of teaching. They protect the people in their right to hear, to read, to discuss, and to reach judgments according to individual conscience. Without the possession and the exercise of these rights, self-government is impossible.

In defending freedom to learn and freedom to teach we are defending the democratic process itself. The following statement shows how the right of the student to learn implies a corresponding right of the teacher to teach, and how this, in turn places correlative responsibilities upon the teacher. The National Council for the Social Studies accepts this statement of the essentials of freedom to learn and freedom to teach.

I. *Freedom to learn implies*: The right of students to study and discuss significant moral, scientific, social, economic, and political issues. Respect for the individual is first of all respect for his mind and conscience. He should have the opportunity to pursue questions that seem important to him and to his fellow-students. This opportunity is also essential in preparing for the duties of citizenship. By studying and discussing issues, young persons develop an interest in the problems of the community, the state, the nation, and the world. They also learn the skills needed by citizens in solving the problems that confront them. These skills, which require a long process of growth and development, include the ability to analyze a problem, to gather and organize facts, to discriminate between facts and opinion, to evaluate sources of information, to discuss a controversial question with persons who have opposing points of view, and to draw intelligent conclusions.

Appendix F (continued)

Freedom to teach implies: The right of the teacher to direct the attention of students to significant current questions and to promote the exchange of ideas upon them.

Correlative responsibilities: To select issues that take into account the needs of students, their maturity, and the purposes of the school.

II. *Freedom to learn implies*: The right of the student to have access to a variety of publications and materials that relate to issues studied in class. The student should have materials expressing differing points of view so that he may become acquainted with all sides of the question. He has a right to textbooks which are scholarly and well-balanced, in which the intellectual integrity of authors and editors has not been sacrificed to please special-interest groups seeking to impose their ideas upon the schools. The student has a right to an abundance of supplementary materials, including magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and audiovisual aids. To bar from the school sincere and honest views is contrary to the democratic process by which we seek an accommodation of all groups in the community.

Freedom to teach implies: The right of the teacher to select teaching materials suited to the maturity levels of the pupils and which are conducive to deeper understanding and more critical thinking concerning the questions being explored.

Correlative responsibilities: To help students obtain an adequate quantity and variety of materials representing all sides of a question. To help students evaluate printed and audiovisual materials. If any material is of a partisan nature, to help students become aware of this fact and of the nature and purposes of the organization which publishes it.

III. *Freedom to learn implies*: The right of students to study and discuss all sides of the issue in an atmosphere where there can be a give-and-take on ideas without loss of personal dignity. Young people should learn that all ideas thoughtfully expressed are entitled to thoughtful consideration. They should learn that respect for the individual includes respect for his right to an opinion that is not accepted by the majority. The student should feel free to explore any question that he feels a need to explore and to reach any conclusion upon an issue that fits the facts as he understands them without any limitation except that imposed by intellectual honesty.

Freedom to teach implies: The right of the teacher to conduct his class in a climate of free speech, critical thinking, and independent judgment.

Correlative responsibilities: To set an example for students in his class in a climate of free speech, critical thinking, and independent judgment.

IV. *Freedom to learn implies*: The right to teach and express an opinion or hold values that may be different from those of other members of the class and from those of the teacher. The free contest of ideas is part of the democratic way of life. If the school interferes with the expression of unorthodox ideas by a student, students may come to regard suppression of free speech as normal and even desirable.

Freedom to teach implies: The right of the teacher to identify and express his/[her] own point of view in the classroom.

Correlative responsibilities: To remember always that students do not find it easy to develop the ability to think for themselves and to express their own opinions, particularly if these are different from those of the teacher or the majority of their classmates. To remember that the aim of democratic education is to teach students *how* to think, not *what* to think. To keep [her]/his own opinions in the background as much as is humanly possible until such time as the students have made ample opportunity to make up their minds. To be aware of his/[her] own bias and to refrain from dogmatic statements. To help students to see that there is usually no one *right* and *final* answer to a controversial question. To treat all ideas, groups and individuals fairly.

V. *Freedom to learn implies*: The right of the student to learn through taking part with individuals and groups who deal with practical problems of the school and community. If learning is to have significance, it must be tested in application to the problems of everyday living.

Freedom to teach implies: The right of the teacher to participate in community affairs (including political action) on the same basis as other citizens. He is not required, because of this profession, to maintain a timorous silence. On the contrary, he has an obligation to use his special knowledge to advance ideas which he believes will be useful to the community.

Correlative responsibilities: To enlist the active help of responsible citizens when planning and carrying out projects for community improvement. To get the cooperation of responsible persons or agencies that are likely to be affected by community projects carried on by students. To indicate when he speaks on a controversial issue that he does not necessarily speak for the institution that employs him. To avoid any commitments which interfere with his own free and unbiased pursuit of truth.

VI. *Freedom to learn implies*: The right of the student to dignity and respect as a member of the community. Young people are entitled to be respected as individuals, respected for what they are and what they may become. They should be free from irresponsible charges of subversion and infantilism.

Freedom to teach implies: The right of the teacher to dignity and respect as a responsible member of the community. In his private capacity the teacher should be as free as any other citizen to participate in political, religious, and social movements and organizations and in any other lawful activity. He should be free to join with others to protect and advance group interests that are lawful and compatible with democratic traditions. He should not be subjected, as a condition of holding a teaching position, to a test of religious belief or of political belief, other than his pledge to support the Constitution of his state and of the United States.

Correlative responsibilities: To uphold democratic principles and to follow democratic methods in his relations with students, parents, colleagues, and the community at large. To follow a standard of personal conduct comparable to that expected of other professional workers in the community and a standard of public conduct harmonious with the responsibilities of the teaching profession.

CONCLUSION

The National Council for the Social Studies has faith that when young people have freedom to learn from competent teachers who are free to teach, they will, as a group, make decisions that support the values associated with our democratic republic. They will be able to define problems, gather evidence in relationship to these problems, consider what is best, and develop means appropriate to our democratic society for dealing with these problems. This task of training for effective citizenship is an essential part of our educational effort.

Officially adopted by Board of Directors,
National Council for the Social Studies.

Appendix G
Sample History Objectives

This is the section from the Tri-County Goals Development Project in Oregon that relates to American colonial history. In addition to the course goals, the knowledge or process and the concepts are identified. This information is not included here, but the grade level designations are.

1. The student knows the location and use of print and nonprint materials related to the Colonial Period in United States history.... (primary, intermediate, junior high, senior high)
2. The student knows the social, economic, and political motivations influencing colonization of and immigration to America. (junior high, senior high)
3. The student knows how political, religious, and economic factors influenced English colonizations of North America. (junior high, senior high)
4. The student knows factors in the natural environment (food, forest, soil, water) which were necessary for early settlers to survive. (intermediate, junior high, senior high)
5. The student knows that the physical geography of North America influenced choices of early settlement sites. (intermediate, junior high, senior high)
6. The student knows the major distinguishing geographic characteristics of the New England, middle, and southern colonies. (junior high, senior high)
7. The student knows religious, social, economic, political, and sectional differences which existed in colonial American society. (junior high, senior high)
8. The student knows how difficulties of travel and communication in the colonial communities furthered the growth of regionalism. (junior high, senior high)
9. The student knows that the three types of English colonies (corporate, proprietary, royal) established in America determined their respective forms of government. (junior high, senior high)
10. The student knows the characteristics of educational systems in New England, middle and southern colonies including degree of public support, purposes, administration, and degree of public involvement. (junior high, senior high)
11. The student knows that many colonists came to America as indentured servants. (junior high, senior high)
12. The student knows that major European cultural and political traditions passed principally through England to North America (e.g., doctrine of natural rights). (junior high, senior high)

Appendix G (continued)

13. The student knows the characteristics of political life in the New England, middle and southern colonies including participation in government, basis of power, and stability of government. (junior high, senior high)

14. The student knows major changes in religious and political thought in colonial America between the 17th and 18th centuries. (senior high)

15. The student knows ways how (e.g., socially, economically, and politically) American society of the 18th century was distinctly different from British society of the same period. (senior high)

16. The student knows ways the church influenced colonial society in New England. (junior high, senior high)

17. The student knows Puritan ideas of God and morality as found in literature and lore of early New England. (senior high)

18. The student knows how Puritan intolerance and refusal to accept dissent influenced colonial development. (senior high)

19. The student knows strengths and weaknesses of a church-oriented civil government such as existed in colonial New England. (senior high)

20. The student knows factors which accounted for decline of Puritanism in New England. (senior high)

21. The student knows how early colonial traders alienated the Indians and the effects of this alienation on the political situation of the times (e.g., the Indians joined the French in the struggle for supremacy in North America). (junior high, senior high)

22. The student knows why attempts by the British Government to stop westward movement by colonists were unsuccessful. (junior high, senior high)

23. The student knows similarities (in terms of class and structure) between American colonial society and contemporary American society. (senior high)

Appendix H
Affective Teaching Models

The following are some of the more important developments in how to teach affectively in recent years. Each of these has purposes for which it is suited.

Model	Theorist(s)	Orientation	Aims
1. Ego development	Erikson	Developmental	Resolution of ego crisis
2. Psychological model	Mosher and Sprinthall	Developmental	Facilitation of ego, cognitive, and moral development
3. Psychosocial model	Ryan and Hoffman	Developmental	Positive self-concept and independent learning skills
4. Moral development model	Kohlberg	Developmental	Avoidance of stage retardation
5. Values clarification	Simon, Raths, Kirschenbaum	Self-concept	Incorporation of valuing process
6. Identity education	Weinstein and Fantini	Self-concept	Positive identity, self-control, and relatedness to others
7. Classroom meeting model	Glasser	Self-concept	Sense of identity through responsible decision making
8. Role-playing model	Shaftel and Shaftel	Self-concept	Positive self-concept, group cohesiveness, and problem-solving skills
9. Self-directed model	Rogers	Self-concept	Fully functioning person
10. Communication model	Carkhuff	Sensitivity and group	Communications skills

Appendix H (continued)

	Model	Theorist(s)	Orientation	Aims
11.	Sensitivity-consideration model	McPhail	Sensitivity and group	Awareness of others' needs and feelings
12.	Transactional analysis	Harris, Burne and Ernst	Sensitivity and group	Open communication and personal growth
13.	Human relations training	National Training Laboratory	Sensitivity and group	Interpersonal skills
14.	Meditation	Ornstein	Consciousness expansion	Awareness and centeredness
15.	Synectics	Gordon	Consciousness expansion	Creative and imaginative capacities
16.	Confluent education	Castillo, Brown and Hillman	Consciousness expansion	Integration and holistic perception
17.	Psychosynthesis	Assagioli and Crampton	Consciousness expansion	Integration through centeredness

Appendix I
A Values Scope and Sequence

Clive Beck in his booklet, *Moral Education in the Schools: Some Practical Suggestions*, develops the following sequence.

- Personal and social values in general (ages 5–9)
  - Helping other people
  - The self and others
  - The value of rules to ourselves and others
  - Exceptions to rules
  - The need to look ahead
  - Parent-child relationships
  - Attitudes toward teachers
  - Other authorities in society
  - The need to learn
  - The need for advice
  - Making up one's mind
  - Valuable goals in life
  - The legitimacy of happiness as a goal
  - The place of work

- Human relations (ages 10 and 11)
  - Rules people give us
  - The place of rules in society
  - Exceptions to society's rules
  - The individual's need for other people
  - Helping other people
  - The self and others
  - The place of laws, judges, and police
  - The place of governments and other authorities
  - Law-breaking and the place of punishment
  - Different values and rules in our society
  - Different values and rules around the world
  - Loyalty and patriotism
  - The place of the inner group of relatives and friends
  - Parent-child relationships

Appendix I (continued)

Prejudice against races, social classes, and other groups
Differences in taste in our society and around the world
Settling conflicts of interest in society
The role of the school in solving society's problems
Students, teachers, and schools
The individual and society
Studying society and working out solutions to its problems

- Decision making (ages 12 and 13)

Worthwhile personal goals to pursue in life
The place of education in one's life
Work and leisure, so-called
The place of leisure, recreation, and exercise
Alcohol and drugs
Vocational decision making
Personal moral virtues
The need to look ahead
The need to stop and think (at times)
The need for self-control
Personality differences and problems
Dependence/independence
Introversion/extroversion
Emotional elements in one's makeup
Emotional needs
Sexual needs
Personal decision making in general
Multiple and mixed motives
Intuition
Conscience
Feelings
Authorities and advisors
Rules
What is right, "all things considered"
A working understanding of the world
Using one's mind effectively
Managing one's time and abilities
Adapting to change

- Human issues in the world today (ages 14 and 15)

Democracy, fascism, socialism, and communism in the world today
Freedom and equality in the world today
Means to ends: political process
Means to ends: national and international law
International trade: protection policies
National and international monetary policy
Science, engineering, commerce: various moral issues
War
Disarmament
Underdeveloped nations, so-called

Pollution
Population control
Abortion
Euthanasia
Eugenics
Nationalism
Racism
Women's liberation
Civil liberties, e.g., in commerce, speech, alcohol, drugs, marriage, and divorce
Civil disobedience
Welfare and the minimum wage
Social work
Old age
Medical insurance

- Value theory (ages 16–18)
  - The purpose of morality
  - Moral and nonmoral values
  - The self and others
  - Favoring an inner group
  - Justice
  - Compromise
  - What is morality?
  - Stages of moral development
  - Moral character and personality traits
  - Human needs and moral ideals
  - Elements in human decision making
  - Elements in human action
  - Politics, law, and morality
  - Business, economics, and morality
  - National, racial, and cultural distinctions
  - The movement toward internationalism
  - Future planning
  - Value theories emphasizing function and purpose
  - Authority-oriented value theories
  - Hedonistic value theories
  - Utilitarian theories
  - Subjectivism, relativism, and objectivism
  - Developing a value theory
  - The place of beliefs and rule in moral decision making
  - The place of conscience and feelings in moral decision making
  - Decision making in general

Appendix J
The Meetinghouse*

The meetinghouse became the center and symbol of the community in early Connecticut towns. It was built either 1. _____ or closely adjacent to 2. _____ town common, and was 3. _____ most centrally located building 4. _____ the community. The rich 5. _____ the influential town leaders 6. _____ their homes near it, 7. _____ it served not only 8. _____ a place of worship, 9. _____ also as a town 10. _____ and public storehouse for 11. _____ town's armies. Nearby were 12. _____ other public buildings and 13. _____ : the schoolhouse, the blacksmith 14. _____ , the general store, the 15. _____ or inn, the jail, 16. _____ whipping post, and the 17. _____ .

The early meetinghouses were 18. _____ simply, as were most 19. _____ the other buildings in 20. _____ . The earliest ones, built 21. _____ rough-cut lumber, were usually 22. _____ The roof was pyramidal 23. _____ terminated in a central 24. _____ , which later became a 25. _____ . (It was the middle 26. _____ the eighteenth century before 27. _____ came into general use.) 28. _____ meetinghouses were not large, 29. _____ forty or fifty feet 30. _____ , but they could hold 31. _____ entire population of the 32. _____ towns.

The Sabbath, or 33. _____ Lord's Day, began at 34. _____ on Saturday. At that 35. _____ all unnecessary work ceased, 36. _____ until sunset of the 37. _____ day, strict religious observances 38. _____ the waking hours. Attending 39. _____ Sabbath services was a 40. _____ matter, and on Sunday 41. _____ , unless sick or disabled, 42. _____ at the meetinghouse at 43. _____ beating of a drum 44. _____ the sound of a 45. _____ Since there was no 46. _____ school, children attended the 47. _____ services.

*Arthur E. Soderlind. *Colonial Connecticut.* NY: Thomas Nelson, Inc., 1976, pp. 56–57.

Answer Key, The Meetinghouse

1. on
2. the
3. the
4. of
5. and
6. built
7. and
8. as
9. but
10. hall
11. the
12. the
13. facilities:
14. shop,
15. ordinary
16. the
17. pillory.
18. built
19. of
20. town
21. of
22. square.
23. and
24. watchtower,
25. belfry.
26. of
27. bells
28. The
29. only
30. square,
31. the
32. early
33. the
34. sunset
35. time
36. and
37. following
38. filled
39. the
40. serious
41. everyone,
42. gathered
43. the
44. or
45. horn.
46. Sunday
47. regular

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